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A

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THE

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For JULY, 1757.

An Account of the Complete Body of Husbandry, continued from *Vol.* XVI. *page.* 399.

THE *second book* of this work treats of *Manures*, and is divided into *two parts*; the first relating to *natural*, the second to *artificial* manures.—Amongst natural manures, the first place is given to marle, the nature whereof is the subject of the first chapter of this book. We are here told, that marle is a treasure to the farmer, wheresoever it is found; and that there is no country in the world, where there is more of it than in England. That it may be known, when found, it is thus described:—'Pure marle is a substance not unlike fuller's earth. 'It is soft and fatty to the touch; not tough, like clay, nor 'dusty, like ochre, nor sandy, like loam; but of a tender, fine 'nature, unlike all other sorts of earth.'—It will swell in water, like fullers earth, and crumble of itself to pieces. It also crackles on being put into fire.—Our Authors divide marles into two kinds, the *pure* and the *mixt*.

Chap. II. *Of the several kinds of pure or unmixed Marles.*

There are *five* kinds of marle; *white*, *yellow*, *red*, *blue*, and *black*; but the last is less common than any of the other sorts. All of them, however, are more common than is generally supposed: for though marle is actually found in but few counties in England, yet, upon proper search, our Authors believe it might be discovered in most.—White marle, we are told, is the softest and lightest of any; the blue, the firmest and heaviest:

therefore the former is generally uſed on paſture-grounds, as diſſolving the ſooneſt; and the latter on corn-lands; but both ſhould be laid on early in the ſeaſon. And the harder and more compact the marle is, the earlier ſtill ought it to be laid on. The ſofter kinds, indeed, may be laid on later, as they readily diſſolve, almoſt as ſoon as expoſed to the weather.

We are further acquainted, that the uſe of marle was known in the time of the Romans; that it was formerly uſed in many places, where it is now neglected, (as appears by many old hollows ſtill remaining in different parts, which the country people ſay, by tradition, were dug for marle) and that ſeveral old deeds of eſtates, mention *marlaria*, or marle-pits, as articles of value upon them: 'A melancholy proof,' (ſay our Authors) 'that the art of huſbandry, which is ſo well worthy to be im-'proved, has declined, inſtead of advancing, in the late ages.'

This laſt remark, for ought we know, may be true enough, notwithſtanding the good opinion the preſent generation have of their own abilities, beyond thoſe of their anceſtors. But the true reaſon of ſuch a general neglect of marle amongſt the preſent farmers, ſeems to us pretty obvious. For, ſince farmers, inſtead of being *owners* of the lands they occupied, (as they uſually were in thoſe more early times) have become, firſt *renters*, and now generally *rack*-renters, their circumſtances and precarious ſituation, will not permit them to be at ſuch great charges as marling requires; for the return of that expence is ſo ſlow, that they may be diſcharged from their farms, or die, before half the money expended in this way of huſbandry, can poſſibly come into their pockets again. Nor, indeed, is a renting farmer often poſſeſſed of ſuch a ſubſtance, as to be *able* to lay out ſo much money at firſt, (though he were ever ſo ſure of a return) as marling his land, to any purpoſe, neceſſarily requires. Moſt farmers, therefore, are induced to make uſe of ſuch manures as are leſs chargeable, and return quicker; by which means they ſtand a fairer chance not to leave the profit behind them, for another tenant. All this, (as well as the much greater expence of carriage, and all kinds of labour, at preſent than formerly) being conſidered, we are not much ſurprized, that the uſe of marle (though, doubtleſs, worthy of all the praiſes beſtowed on it in this work) is not ſo general as might be wiſhed. Experiments of ſuch an expenſive nature, are not to be tried at random, by poor tenants; but muſt be left to their happier landlords, in whoſe hands, probably, they might turn to very good account.

Chap.

Chap. 3. *Of impure, or mixed Marles.*

The ſeveral ſorts of mixed marles are, ſandy, clayey, loamy, and ſtony marles: among which laſt are alſo to be comprehended ſome which have, at firſt digging, the hardneſs of a ſtone, though they have not a particle of real ſtone in them. Theſe, though ſo hard that a large hammer would make no impreſſion upon them when firſt dug up, will, by ſix months expoſure to the weather, crumble away to powder; and are then inferior to none in richneſs.—Marle, in ſome places, lies at a conſiderable depth, but more frequently near the ſurface; inſomuch, that it is ſometimes even plowed up with the ſoil, and ſo manures it without any farther trouble.

Chap. 4. *Of Marles found in particular counties.*

Our Authors here ſpecify, of the ſeveral ſorts of marle found in different counties, and the nature of each. We are particularly informed, that the ſtony marles are moſt valued, becauſe of their laſting efficacy. The fatty and crumbly kinds enrich the ground, indeed, more quickly; but theſe hard ones give that fruitfulneſs which laſts many years, and enriches the landlord after it has ſerved the purpoſes of the tenant. This confirms the remark of one man's receiving the chief benefit of another's expence in marling:—a practice, for that very reaſon, more proper for the *owner* of the land, than a *tenant*, to purſue, as we obſerved before. It is aſſerted, however, on the other hand, that though theſe harder kinds of marle enrich the land ſo long, yet they have often a bad effect in the end: for after the period of fruitfulneſs obtained from them is over, the land becomes ſo barren, that ſcarce any thing can make it fruitful again: The hard white marle, it ſeems, is moſt ſubject to this cenſure. How far this degrading quality takes off from the other beneficial ones of marle, our Authors would do well to determine in their next edition: otherwiſe, inſtead of promoting, they will rather be likely to put a ſtop (as far as their influence may extend) to the farther uſe of this boaſted manure.

Chap. 5. *Of ſeeking for Marle.*

The firſt inducement for a farmer to ſeek for marle, is a belief that there are few pieces of land of any conſiderable extent, in which one kind or other of it may not be found. Next, let him examine by report, and the appearances of the land, whether marle has ever, heretofore, been dug in, or near it. He may alſo obſerve whether there are any remains of old pits, or hollows, in his ground, which are an evidence that ſomething has been dug there.

The farmer is next directed to dig to the depth of three feet, or to uſe an augur if he goes deeper, but not to go above ſix feet deep; for if the marle lies deeper than that, it is ſcarce worth digging. But though no ſigns ſhould appear, nor any reports of marle having been dug there, yet this ſhould not diſcourage the farmer from trying, as there is a time for the firſt diſcovery of every thing. When wells or ponds are dug, or ditches made, he ſhould carefully obſerve the different ſorts of matter that are thrown out; ſome of which may probably prove marle: and that they are ſo, he may be pretty well aſſured, if they moulder away in a baſon of water, or crackle on being put into the fire.—The fineſt marle, and that too in the greateſt plenty, is oftenеſt found under clayey ſoils; mellow earth is the next that conceals marle; after this loams; ſometimes it is found under gravels; but rarely under ſandy ſoils, and then it is commonly a thin vein, and lies deep.

Chap. 6. *Of ſuiting Marle to the Land.*

This chapter informs us, that there are very few lands that may not be improved by marle. In ſome parts of Cheſhire they lay fifteen or eighteen hundred loads on an acre; ſo that they may be ſaid to *add* a ſoil, rather than to improve what was there before. The digging and carriage of ſuch a quantity will coſt 12 or 15 l. an acre; after which they will work it, with good management, twenty or thirty years together: but then it muſt be plowed very ſhallow for the firſt years, for fear of burying the marle.

Sandy land requires marle moſt, and is moſt improved by it: and the moſt ſuitable marle for it, is the clayey kind. In general, the more ſandy the ground is, the more clayey the marle ſhould be that is laid on it. Loam, next to ſand, receives the moſt benefit from marle; but it ſhould be the pureſt and fineſt ſort of marle; not clayey or ſandy.—Gravelly ſoils receive as much advantage from marle, as the ſandy; provided the clayey ſort of marle be uſed, which never fails of giving the greateſt advantage to thoſe kinds of ſoil through which the purer ſorts would be quickly waſhed away.—Chalky ſoils are not quite proper for marle; but may, in ſome caſes, be dreſſed with it to good advantage: for which we refer to the book itſelf.—Next follows a vindication of the practice of marling *clays*, though contrary (it is allowed) to the opinion of moſt farmers, writers on huſbandry, and the old proverb,—*He that marles clay, throws all away:*—The ſandy marle is recommended as the moſt proper for this practice.

We cannot help thinking there is a good deal of truth in the above proverb, notwithſtanding the many arguments here made

made uſe of to invalidate its force; as both reaſon and experience ſeem to confirm the truth of it: and for our parts, we ſhould much rather recommend the uſe of ſand, gravel, ſtones, chalk, or other looſe earthy materials, for clays, than any ſort of marle whatever. Indeed, we cannot help looking upon this ſcheme of marling clays, as a pernicious one: for if clays may be marled, then it ſhould ſeem, that marles may be clayed; the abſurdity of which is too ſelf-evident to be treated in a ſerious manner.

Chap. 7. *The manner of uſing Marle.*

Some farmers, we are here told, lay on marle as much too thin, as others do too thick; but about a hundred loads to an acre, is recommended as a good general rule. The beſt way of ſowing marled land, is to do it *under-furrow*. The full effect of the marle is not to be expected the firſt year; but then it will laſt, according to the nature of the ſoil, and kind of marle, from ſeven, to ten, twenty, or even thirty years. When land that has been marled, after fair weather, looks white, as if covered with a hoar-froſt, it is a ſign that it will anſwer, and a proof that the marle is good, laid on in due quantity, and well mixed with the land.—Some burn marle, making thereof a weak lime, of which they lay about fifty loads on an acre —Clayey marle ſhould never be laid on in the beginning of winter; for it ſometimes, inſtead of breaking, grows tough with repeated wetting, and the land, inſtead of being improved, is rendered worſe by it. When ſuch a thing happens, the land ſhould be ſtrewed over with a ſmall quantity of marle-lime, or any other lime, mixed well with rotted dung; which will not only break it, but greatly improve the land.—A field that lies upon the deſcent, ſhould be marled half as thick again on the higher part, as on the lower; for the rains will waſh enough of it down to make all equal.

Chap. 8. *Of the vaſt Fertility of marled Lands.*

Here we meet with many and great encomiums upon the uſe and advantages of marle. Of the truth and juſtneſs of them, we pretend not to be competent judges: but as whoever reads this chapter, may find himſelf ſtrongly perſuaded to be trying experiments; (the only way, indeed, of coming at real knowlege) we would adviſe him, before he begins, to obtain a pretty long leaſe of his farm, if it happens not to be his own; otherwiſe he may lay out a great deal of money upon too much hazard. For it is allowed by our Authors themſelves, that the full benefit of marling land, (a very expen-

five practice!) cannot be obtained under a ſhorter courſe than of twenty, or ſometimes even thirty years: a point not to be diſregarded by a *renter* of land.

Chap. IX. *Of the uſe of Mud as a Manure.*

Mud is here diſtinguiſhed into three kinds, viz. river, pond, and ditch mud. It is moſt frequently laid on paſture and meadow grounds; but it will alſo help many corn lands. From its different nature, it is qualified to anſwer different purpoſes. Thus, river mud is proper to give fertility, and nothing elſe: for its richneſs is all its character. [And a very good character, ſurely, for a manure!] Pond mud will enrich, and at the ſame time give a body to the ſoil, from the clay it uſually contains; and ditch mud, though it enriches leſs than either of the former, will ſerve better to break a tough land. When mud therefore is laid upon plowed land, as it ſometimes may be to advantage, this laſt is uſually the kind.

Chap. X. *The uſe of Clay as a Manure.*

Clay is here recommended, and that juſtly, as a very proper mixture (manure they call it) for ſandy, gravelly, and ſtony lands. In this manner it is uſed in *Staffordſhire*, and ſome other counties; and will laſt, we are told, for forty years, when laid on to a due thickneſs; that is, about ſeventy-five loads to an acre.—Pit clay, is ſaid to be better than that on the ſurface, becauſe 'purer, and more like virgin-earth.' But we think, that where both ſorts of clay are of the ſame, or nearly the ſame, nature, that on the ſurface muſt be the beſt, as being more pulverized, it will ſooner mix with the ſoil; and as it has had the benefits of the atmoſphere and manure, it muſt be more fertile. To which we may add, that it will be dug at much leſs expence.

As clay is of a very tough, compact nature, burning it in kilns is recommended as an effectual remedy for that inconvenience. This, we are told, renders it an excellent manure for looſe, dry land; as it will then eaſily break, and mix thoroughly with the ſoil, in a very little time. But inſtead of being at ſuch an unneceſſary expence, as this method of burning clay requires, we ſhould rather adviſe, where chalk is to be had, to lay a third part of chalk, together with two thirds of raw clay, upon the land at the ſame time; and if both are ſpread together, the clay will ſoon diſſolve, break, and mix with the ſoil, and produce its effects on the ſubſequent crops. And the clay, chalk, and ſoil, (which we ſuppoſe to be ſandy, gravelly, or other light land) thus compounded, will make another ſoil, much preferable to any conſiſting only of *two* of the above compoſitions.—

This

This chapter, though containing but few obfervations that can properly be called *new*, is, however, of conſiderable merit, and juſtly demands the practical farmer's attention.

Chap. XI. *The uſe of Loam as a Manure.*

Here we have an account of an untoward kind of ſoil, made up of round, blueiſh, ſmall pebbles, and a little hazel mould; on which clay had been tried, without any good effect, as not mixing or incorporating with the ſoil. Therefore loam was ſubſtituted in its ſtead: twenty-two loads of which, laid on an acre, worked ſuch a change, it is ſaid, as to alter the very nature of the ſoil, when clay did nothing. To this we may ſubjoin, that if chalk could have been come at, and mixed with the clay on the ground, there would have been no occaſion for loam; as the chalk would have rendered the clay more diſſoluble, and both together, would have done as much, or more good, than the loam ſingly.

In the laſt paragraph of this chapter, we are told, 'that it is 'a great art not to throw the rich manures away, which is eaſily 'done, upon what are called hungry, and looſe ſoils; loam gives 'theſe a body, and after that they will retain whatever is given 'them.'—True: and the ſame effect will be produced by any other ſtrong ſubſtance; ſuch as clay, mixed with chalk, or ſometimes without it.

Chap. XII. *The uſe of Sand as a Manure.*

Sand is ſaid to be of five kinds, viz. pit, river, ſea-ſand, ſhelly ſea-ſand, and the grit of roads; which laſt is called a *baſtard* kind: though we ſhould think it the beſt of the five, conſidering its richneſs, and how much eaſier it is to be come at than the others.—Where ſand is uſed only to break and divide a tough ſoil, [as clay for inſtance, the chief ſoil whereon it can be uſed to any good purpoſe; and this is its principal uſe in huſbandry] the cleaner it is the better; becauſe the cleaner the ſharper.—Sand may alſo be mixed with ſeveral ſorts of dung, as a manure; and ſheep may be folded on it in a ſheep-houſe, [or ſhed] where the floor may be deeply covered with it, and when ſufficiently impregnated with the dung and urine of the ſheep, may be removed, and freſh ſand put in its place. Pit-ſand is the beſt for this purpoſe, becauſe the earthy matter that is about it, detains the moiſture that drains upon it.

Both ſorts of ſea-ſand are very enriching to land, and are uſed as manure by the inhabitants of the ſea-coaſts. In ſome places they are apt to lay on too great, and in others two ſmall a quan-

tity of it. Our Authors adviſe nine or ten ton to be laid on an acre; and ſay, that what lies in creeks, and among rocks, where it is leaſt diſturbed, and where moſt weeds grow, and ſmall animals live, is commonly the richeſt; as it contains a great deal of decayed animal and vegetable matter, from the bodies of fiſh, weeds, and other things, that die and rot among it.

Chap. XIII. *The Uſe of Gravels as a Manure.*

Gravel is uſeful for clayey, and ſtrong loamy ſoils; as it warms and breaks them, and ſo gives way to rains, and the roots of plants. The beſt gravel for this purpoſe, is what moſt abounds with rough and ragged flints, or other ſmall ſtones. Clayey land thus gravelled, may be afterwards dunged to great advantage; though dung before would have been, in a great meaſure, thrown away upon it.—In confirmation of the above, we are here told of a farmer in Northamptonſhire, who had waſted a good deal of dung on a clay; but the ſtaple of the clay being very ſhallow, and lying on another of flinty gravel, intermixed with a great quantity of oyſter-ſhells petrified; he, one year, plowed deeper than ordinary, and turned up a good deal of this mixed gravel with the ſoil; and the conſequence was, that the next crop proved four times greater than the land ever produced before.

Chap. XIV. *The uſe of Stone as a Manure.*

In Oxfordſhire, we are told, there are large tracts of a cold, tough, and very indifferent ſoil; upon which a great deal of manure, of the common kinds, is beſtowed, in ſeveral places, to very little purpoſe; but that about Banbury they have found a way of manuring this ſort of land with the chippings of ſtone, to great profit. There are quarries of ſtone, it ſeems, in that neighbourhood; and the pieces that fly off in hewing out the blocks, are ſpread upon theſe plowed lands, and worked in by degrees, mixing thoroughly with the ſoil, and giving it a laſting fertility.—It is no wonder, indeed, that the benefit ariſing from hence is *laſting*; for ſo long as the ſtones retain their power of dividing the tough ſoil, they muſt be of ſervice to it.

Chap. XV. *The uſe of Chalk as a Manure.*

Chalk is here ſaid to be one of the moſt diſtinguiſhing manures in its effects, which will laſt twenty years. The two worſt ſoils we have, clay and ſand, are both greatly improved by it. Chalk is a general name, comprehending many kinds of this white ſubſtance, of different degrees of hardneſs: but the ſofteſt, melloweſt, and moſt crumbly ſort is the beſt for land.

land. The harder ſorts are ſometimes burnt into lime, and uſed with great benefit as a manure; but will not laſt ſo long as the unburnt. The ſoft mellow chalk uſually lies at a ſmall depth in the ground, under a coat of yellowiſh marley clay. This kind nearly approaches to the nature of marle, and being mixed with the tougheſt clays, makes them light and hollow, ſo that the rains and weather eaſily penetrate them; manures enter well into their ſubſtance, corn eaſily ſhoots through them, and they freely yield to all the inſtruments of huſbandry.

Chalk ſhould be dug in October, and be expoſed to the rains and froſt all winter; and in ſpring it muſt be beat, ſpread, and ploughed into the land. This is a good general rule, but where the chalk is very ſoft, it is as well to lay it on immediately from the pit in ſpring. Where chalk is very hard and ſtony, it ſhould be broke tolerably ſmall, and expoſed upon a lay a year or two before it is plowed up: this will give it time to ſoften, ſo that it will mix better with the ſoil when plowed in.—Though the uſe of chalk is, in a manner, confined to arable lands; yet it may be laid alſo upon paſtures with very good effect. But it ſhould be quite mellow and crumbly, when uſed for graſs-grounds; inſomuch that a man ſhould be able to crumble any lump of it to pieces, by treading it under his foot, before it is fit for that purpoſe. Our Authors ſay, from their own experience, that though they could not perceive the graſs to be any taller or fuller, for chalking; and therefore, at firſt, thought that it did no good; yet they ſoon found, by their cattle and dairy, that it gave a body, or richneſs, and ſweetneſs, to the graſs, though it did not increaſe the quantity. Their cattle fattened better upon this, than any paſture of the ſame kind without chalking; and the milk was the richeſt they ever ſaw.—Yet after all, we are told, that chalk, in the end, is apt to leave the land poorer than at firſt; and that if it is not preſerved by other rich manures, or recovered by reſt, it will be perfectly exhauſted. To prevent ſo fatal an accident, which has caſt a reproach upon chalking of land, *that it enriches the preſent poſſeſſor, but ruins the next*; our Authors adviſe,—not to lay the chalk on alone, but to mix one load of mellow chalk, with three loads of dung, and a load of river-mud. This compoſition, when ſpread upon the land, will, it is ſaid, keep it in heart, and give it a puſhing quality; inſomuch, that after the power of this is over, it will receive another dreſſing of chalk with the ſame benefit as the firſt, without any time of reſt. Chalking lands in this manner, will anſwer like marling them in ſome parts of England, where they renew the dreſſing once in ten or twelve years, and ſo keep working the land from one generation to another. The fault therefore that is charged

upon

upon chalk, is rather to be laid (we are told) at the door of the husbandman.

After the above summary of this long but useful chapter, we shall beg leave to submit a few remarks upon it, to the Reader's consideration. We thought, indeed, to have said something on the ill-grounded notion of chalk's impoverishing land in the end; but as our Author's themselves have taken the supposed crime off from chalk, and laid it on the poor Farmer, we shall endeavour to excuse him as well as we can. And *first*, the numerous difficulties a rack-rented farmer labours under, through scarcity of ready money, the uncertainty of his tenure, &c. naturally incline, nay, sometimes oblige him to strive as much to lessen his expences, as to increase his produce; and often induce him to omit the doing things which he is thoroughly sensible would be for his advantage, were he but able to do them. Therefore, *secondly*, he is apt to think, perhaps, that if, instead of mixing chalk and dung together, he can lay on his chalk directly from the pit, and afterwards, as opportunity serves, lay on dung from the yard; and then mix it by plowing, it will *certainly* save charges, (a point of great moment to him) and may *possibly* succeed as well. And, *thirdly*, it is the same with respect to *mud*, which may be laid on at any time, when and where it is to be had. We say, *when* and *where*, for many farmers lie several miles distant from any river; in which case, the charge of carriage would doubly or trebly exceed the expected profit: and even those who happen to be situated near a river, must first have a right to the mud of it, then a power to stop the water-course, next, a sufficient number of hands (which often are not to be had at the proper seasons) to throw out the mud, which must lie to drain and dry, before it will be carriageable in a cart; and *lastly*, it must, when sufficiently dried, be filled into carts, and carried to the land. The *expence* of all this should be duly considered, as well as another very material circumstance, viz. that few rivers would long afford mud enough for half the neighbouring farmers, were this method to become common. Now all these incidents are either forgot, or overlooked, by our Authors, who talk as if every thing were as easily done, as said, and as useful in practice, as specious in theory. Writers on husbandry are usually very angry with Farmers, for not implicitly following their schemes; which often, too often, are only the whims of their own brains: not founded, as every thing of this sort ought to be, on a rational theory, or experience; nor supported by proper, just, and true calculations and estimates of the expence attending them. This last point, though pretty much disregarded by speculative Writers, must, however, be attended

to

to by the practical Farmer, if he hopes to continue his practice, in that way, for any conſiderable length of time.

Chap. XVI. *The Uſe of Salt as a Manure.*

Here the Farmer is perſuaded to *ſalt* his land; and is told, he cannot do amiſs, except he uſes too much. The quantity recommended, is three buſhels to an acre, at firſt; and when the land is uſed to it, then one buſhel may do.

Now, three buſhels of ſalt, in the inland parts, will coſt about 5s. per buſhel, at the loweſt; i. e. 15s. for the three buſhels. But we are authorized, by an experienced Farmer, to ſay, that twelve buſhels of *ſoot* will have a greater effect, in forcing a crop, than the above quantity of *ſalt*. The ſoot may coſt about 9d. per buſhel, i. e. 9s. for the twelve buſhels; ſo that here is a ſaving of 6s. at once: and yet *both* theſe dreſſings put together, will ſcarce be ſufficient (in the opinion of a perſon, who has tried both) for one acre.—Salt may, probably, anſwer well enough near the ſea, or ſalt-pits; but what is that to the generality of Farmers, who live at ſuch a diſtance from either, as to make the price (carriage and duty included) amount to what is mentioned above?—Salt is, however, of one very great uſe to land, (tho' not taken notice of here) in the deſtruction of inſects, worms, and ſlugs; which laſt creature is of ſo pernicious a nature to the Farmer, as frequently to deſtroy his crops of wheat, peas, &c.

Chap. XVII. *The Uſe of Sea-weeds as Manure.*

Chap. XVIII. *Of Sea-ſhells, and their Spawn, as a Manure.*

As theſe two chapters can be of uſe only to ſuch Farmers as live near the ſea, we ſhall give no abſtract of them: but only remark, that the nice obſervations therein made upon *ſea-weeds and ſhells*, are not of general uſe; for where they can be had at a charge ſo reaſonable, as to make it worth a Farmer's while to uſe them, the benefit of them, as a manure, is very plain and obvious; and where they are not to be had without too much expence, all encomiums upon them are quite thrown away.—Indeed, with reſpect to manures in general, the very beſt and richeſt in their own nature are not ſo much to be ſought after, as thoſe that may be had at a moderate price, and that are likely to be repaid by the produce of the land in a few years; ſo that the buſineſs, in this reſpect, of a *Book of Huſbandry*, is not to perſuade a Farmer to the uſe of certain Manures, Compounds, or Mixtures of Soils, merely as being in themſelves the *richeſt* and *beſt*, without any regard to the trouble and charge of coming

coming at them; but, to direct him to the *cheapeſt*, as well as *beſt* manures, &c. with the *cheapeſt* and *eaſieſt* ways of coming at them; together with eſtimates (where it can be done) of the expences of them: for inſtances might be produced from ſome books of Huſbandry, of manures, mixtures of ſoils, &c. recommended in very ſtrong terms, as excellent things, to enrich thoſe Farmers *who will be ſo much their own friends as to make uſe of them*, which would coſt the whole purchaſe of the land they are directed to be laid on, and ſometimes even more.

Chap. XIX. *Of Parts of Trees and Plants uſed as Manure.*

Weeds, rotten wood, the bark and leaves of trees, ſaw-duſt, &c. are here recommended for manures; but as they are ſeldom to be had, in any great quantity, without more expence than they are worth, we ſhall trouble the Reader no further about them.

Chap. XX. *Of Parts of Animals uſed as Manure.*

Here we are told, that on the coaſts of Norway, and Newfoundland, they dreſs their land with the refuſe of the Fiſhermen's boats; and from thence it is inferred, that one of the advantages ariſing from the *Herring Fiſhery*, may be the enriching ſome of the worſt lands in our own nation, by means of this Refuſe.

But here it muſt be taken for granted, that ſuch lands lie near the ſea, in which places they have already ſea-ſand, ſhells, ſea-weed, &c. all which are full as cheap, and to be had in larger quantities than this *Refuſe* poſſibly can be.

As to the Hair, Wool, Skins, Hoofs, Horns, and even Bones of Animals, (here alſo recommended) they are not only very good manures, but much uſed, as ſuch, by Farmers in the neighbourhood of London; where they are to be had in conſiderable quantities.

But what our Authors mean, by giving 7s. 8s. or 9s. a buſhel for ſome of them, and laying thirty buſhels upon an acre, we cannot conceive. At this rate, a proper dreſſing will amount to twelve or thirteen pounds an acre, which is as much as would purchaſe the land itſelf, in many inſtances. But what is moſt extraordinary of all, the virtue of this coſtly manure '*is quite ſpent* (it ſeems) *in a couple of years.*' So that here is a charge of ſix pounds a year, per acre, for *manure only*; which may frequently be double the value of the whole crop ſuch acre may produce. This appears ſo monſtrous, that we can no way account for it, but by ſuppoſing it the reſult of ſome typographical error.

Chap.

Chap. XXI. *Of Dung in general, as a Manure.*

Dung is here said to be the readiest, and most universal of all manures; and such it certainly is. However, in treating of it, our Authors seem to have advanced several niceties and distinctions, that cannot be of much use to the practical Husbandman, whatever amusement they may happen to afford to the speculative Reasoner. The following assertion, in particular, we think ill founded:—'If dung be left, when rotten, upon the surface 'of the ground, the sun and rains will *exhaust* all its virtue.'—We say otherwise: for the sun will exhale its *moisture only*; and the rains will carry the *rest* of its virtues into the ground. In this opinion we are confirmed by a very sensible Farmer of our acquaintance, who says, he has found this way of *top-dressing*, by long experience, to be not only a good, but, in many instances, the very best way of applying several kinds of manures (particularly dung) to land.

Chap. XXII. *Of Horse Dung.*

Here we are told, that the stronger and heartier the food of any animal is, the better and richer will be its dung. So that the richest horse dung is that of stable-kept horses, fed with hay and corn; which may also get an additional richness from the urine that, in a well-contrived stable, mixes with it. The stable, for this purpose, is directed to be well paved, that the moisture may not soak into the ground, but mix with the dung and litter.—Horse-dung is here said to be fittest for cold lands, as it is of a hot nature, and rank. This last quality, however, may be easily abated, we are told, by a proper mixture of earth with it, before it is spread; of which method every Farmer will find the advantage, upon trial, in the opinion of these Writers: with whom we agree, if fresh earth is to be met with in sufficient quantities, *near* the land upon which it is intended to be laid; otherwise, the expence of digging and carriage will, probably, overballance the benefit expected from it.

Chap. XXIII. *Of Horse Dung used singly.*

This chapter contains some experiments of applying horse-dung in different forms, to pasture and arable land; but very little out of the common way.

Chap. XXIV. *Of Horse-Dung made into Compost.*

This is to be done in a dung-pit, into which the Farmer is directed to throw, not only dung, but urine, refuse of the garden, ashes from the kitchen, soap-suds, &c. To all which, if three

three times the quantity of freſh earth be added, the whole, we are told, will be greatly improved.

The method here recommended, is *exactly the ſame* with that given in *A new Syſtem of Agriculture*, publiſhed a few years ago; of which particular mention is made in the twelfth volume of our Review, page 74, where ſome *remarks* upon the expediency, or inexpediency, of ſuch a receptacle for dung may be ſeen.

Chap. XXV. *Of the laying on of Dung.*

Here the Farmer is cautioned to be ſure to have his dung ſpread as ſoon as laid on the land; and plowed in as ſoon as ſpread; and not let it lie, as ſome do, a month or two before they plow it in, for the ſun and air to exhauſt almoſt all its virtue.

Now, was dung ſo laid on the ſurface of *arable land*, and not immediately plowed in, really to loſe its ſtrength and virtue, as our Authors ſuggeſt, the effect would ſurely be the ſame with regard to dung laid upon *paſtures*, where it cannot poſſibly be covered. For if dung does no ſervice in the one caſe, becauſe not covered; neither can it in the other, for the very ſame reaſon. And yet, if this was true, ſurely the Hay-Farmers in Middleſex would ſcarce fetch London-dung ten, twelve, or fourteen miles, as many of them do, merely to lay on their graſs-grounds. This general practice then, ſeems to prove indiſputably, that dung *is* of great ſervice when laid on the ſurface of graſs-land, tho' not covered; and why it ſhould not alſo have the ſame effect upon arable, under the like circumſtances, let theſe Authors ſay.

Chap. XXVI. *Of the Virtue and Quantity of Horſe-Dung.*

Farmers are here adviſed, not to lay dung on rich land, till it be rotted to mould, leſt it ſhould breed weeds, and make the corn too rank.

This, in our opinion, is not, upon the whole, an adviſeable practice; for the ſeeds of many pernicious weeds will ſtill retain their vegetative quality, even after the dung is rotted to mould; which is alſo the opinion of Mr. Tull. (*Horſe-hoeing Husbandry*, fol. p. 211.) So that dung ſhould be laid on while freſh and green, or when about half-rotted, at moſt, (for then leſs of it will do) rather than ſuffered to lie till it is half waſted and conſumed, and its ſtrength and ſpirit gone.—Fifteen or twenty loads to an acre, is the *quantity* recommended in this chapter.

Chap. XXVII. *Of Cow-Dung.*

The beſt uſe that can be made of this dung, we are told, is, the mixing it into a compoſt with the horſe-dung and other

refuſe, as before deſcribed; and tho' it has leſs effect than almoſt any other kind, when uſed *ſingly*, yet nothing, it ſeems, enriches a *mixture* more.

Chap. XXVIII. *Of Sheep's Dung.*

We are here told, that ſheep's dung, might be picked up on the downs where they feed, at little charge, and would be more valuable than ordinary dung (*a*).

With reſpect to *folding* ſheep upon land, the Farmer is urged to be careful to plow in the freſh dung, before the ſun and air have evaporated its virtue (*b*).—We are next told, that *cold clays* receive moſt benefit from folding ſheep (*c*).—But the *covered fold*, of which a plate is given, is moſt ſtrongly recommended; and great wonder expreſſed, that it has not come into more general uſe, and been univerſally practiſed (*d*).—The earth to be uſed in ſuch a fold, for the ſheep to lie and dung upon, ſhould be of a contrary nature to the ſoil upon which it is intended to be laid, when ſufficiently impregnated with the urine and dung of the ſheep (*e*).

The

(*a*) This is practiſed in ſome places, and may be a good method, provided the charges of picking it up, do not exceed the value of the dung; but this is a neceſſary caution, and ſhould be always obſerved, notwithſtanding the many golden promiſes to be met with in the work before us.

(*b*) To what we have before obſerved upon this point, we may now add, that if it were really ſo pernicious a method, as it is here repreſented, to leave ſheep's dung uncovered on the ſurface, then what the Farmers call top-folding, muſt be very wrong, as the dung is there left quite uncovered, till it waſtes away;—yet this method is generally approved of, and practiſed, by Farmers on dry ſoils, with good ſucceſs: and what can be ſaid againſt experience?

(*c*) A great miſtake — for ſheep do as much harm by *treading* a cold clay, (except when it is dry) as they do good by their *dung*. There is alſo ſome chance for their *bodies* being converted into *manure*, when the rot happens to ſeize them, as is frequently the caſe, in wet ſummers, upon ſuch cold clays.

(*d*) The *covered fold* can only be made uſe of in *winter*; for it would probably be very hurtful to pen up a flock of ſheep, in *ſummer*, ſo cloſe as they muſt be obliged to lie in a covered fold. It would be apt to overheat their bodies, cauſe the ſcab, and make the fly more troubleſome than common, by their lying ſo hot and moiſt upon their urine and dung; and even in *winter* it would encourage the ſcab, and make them liable to catch cold upon being turned out.

(*e*) This is often difficult to come at, as lying commonly at a diſtance; in which caſe, the expence of digging and carriage may very probably over-ballance the profit ariſing from the uſe of contrary ſoils.

The above is a ſummary of the whole chapter, upon which we have thus hazarded a few *remarks*, by way of notes.

Chap. XXIX. *Of Hog's Dung.*

This is ſaid to be a very rich manure, inſomuch that one load of hog's dung (we are told) will go as far as two of the beſt horſe-dung. In order to increaſe the quantity, and render it more fit for uſe, it is recommended to have the hogſtyes well paved, that nothing may ſoak into the ground; and then to throw into them all the refuſe of the garden, and other waſte matters, with which the hogs will be pleaſed, and a quantity of dung twenty times as great as would naturally be had from the ſame number of ſwine, may thus be raiſed.—The Farmer who uſes this manure, is particularly reminded, not to lay on *too much*. And when ſpeaking of its nature, our Authors ſay,—'no dung yields 'its virtue ſo readily as hogs dung(*f*): but then none loſes it 'ſo quickly by an improper management(*g*). The time of 'laying it on ſhould be carefully regarded(*h*), for a gentle 'rain coming on, will entirely waſh it into the ground in a few 'hours(*i*); and, on the other hand, a dry windy day will 'carry away all its efficacy, and the land will be no better than 'if it had been ſprinkled with ſo much chaff(*k*).'

ſoils. And even where different kinds of ſoils are near to each other, there will yet be a *double* charge of carriage; *firſt*, in bringing the ſoil to the fold; and, *ſecondly*, in taking it out again, and conveying it to the land intended to be manured therewith. Theſe, and various other incidents, may be juſtly ſuſpected of greatly abating the *ſuppoſed* profit attending this boaſted method of the *covered fold*; and may, perhaps, take off the edge of our *ſurprize* at its not being 'uni-'verſally practiſed.'

(*f*) Becauſe, few other dungs have ſo much virtue to yield.

(*g*) We know of no *improper management*, of any great conſequence, except letting it lie too long before it is carried on to the land;—which is, indeed, a common fault. For, in the opinion of a ſenſible friend of our's, it ſhould not even lie ſo long as to become what is uſually called ſpit-dung.

(*h*) This, however, may be any time that ſuits the Huſbandman's convenience beſt; provided only, that it be before the dung is too much rotted.

(*i*) This aſſertion, we imagine, is not to be underſtood *literally*, but in a *figurative* ſenſe; as it ſeems impoſſible for a *gentle rain* to make ſuch clear work in a *few hours*.

(*k*) Not quite ſo bad ſurely!—for if the *dung* be left behind, the wind will be hard put to it, to deprive us wholly of its *efficacy*; eſpecially if it be ſo *very rich* a manure as our Authors aſſert; and we really believe it is.

After

Chap. XXX. *Of Pidgeons Dung.*

After much praiſe beſtowed on this dung, and various encomiums on its prodigious virtues, in forcing and forwarding wheat and barley; after being told, that the Hertfordſhire Farmers fetch it fifteen or twenty miles, and give 10d. per buſhel for it, beſides the carriage; and that an acre will require forty buſhels to manure it properly; we are ſurprized to find, at laſt, that the *whole virtue* of this expenſive manure, is exhauſted by *one crop*; ſo that, in this reſpect, it falls much ſhort of horſe dung, and the common compoſts, which enrich the earth very well for *three*.—Alas! alas! that it ſhould be ſo 'celebrated 'by *all Writers*, and valued by *all Huſbandmen*, with the great-'eſt reaſon,' (as they ſay) and yet, after all, 'fall *much ſhort* 'of horſe dung, and the common compoſts.'

We are informed, in this chapter, of a method to increaſe the quantity of this manure, by covering the bottom of the pidgeon-houſe three or four inches thick with a fine mellow black mould, *well ground to powder*, to receive the dung from the pidgeons.

But ſuppoſe this ſort of mould cannot be had? or if it can, yet will it not be attended with ſome trouble and charge to *grind it to a fine powder?* Would not then malt-duſt, kiln-duſt, foul chaff, the duſt from dreſſing of corn, and the like, anſwer full as well for this purpoſe? Theſe are commonly to be had, are already fine and ſmall enough, will receive the dung of the pidgeons, may be occaſionally turned over, to mingle them and the dung together; and is a method commonly practiſed, with good ſucceſs, by ſuch Hertfordſhire and Bedfordſhire Farmers as have dove-houſes.

Chap. XXXI. *Of the Dung of Poultry.*

Chap. XXXII. *Of Human Excrement.*

Chap. XXXIII. *Of Urine.*

Theſe three chapters contain little elſe than uſeleſs curioſities; needleſs diſtinctions; hair-ſplitting definitions; and tireſome tautologies.

Chap. XXXIV. *Of Rags.*

How rags come to be ranked among *natural manures*, we know not; nor why they were thought worthy of a place in this ſtupendous work, while other manures, of at leaſt equal goodneſs, and more common uſe, as leather-duſt, horn-

ſhavings, hoofs, &c. are either quite omitted, or but tranſiently mentioned.

BOOK II. PART II.

Of Artificial Manures.

Chap. XXXV. *Of Lime. Its various Materials, and Manner of making it.*

The uſe of lime is one of the great articles of modern improvement in Huſbandry. It is chiefly made of lime-ſtone, or chalk; the latter of which needs no deſcription; but the former is ſometimes difficult to be known. The readieſt way to diſcover what ſtones will make lime, is, to pour a little Aqua Fortis upon them, which will hiſs and bubble when it falls on lime-ſtone; but will run off from all others like water. When materials for lime are found, they may be burnt, in a kiln for that purpoſe, with any kind of fuel whatever, but coals or wood are the beſt.

Chap. XXXVI. *Of the Manner of uſing Lime as a Manure.*

Lime, in general, does well, (we are here told) on all light and dry lands, but does not ſucceed on heavy and moiſt grounds. All ſandy, gravelly, and ſtony grounds are improved in a ſurprizing manner by lime: but clays get very little good by it.

Theſe are the words of our Authors; but whether their method be right or wrong, we pretend not to determine. This, however, we can ſay, from our own obſervations in a late journey through a conſiderable part of Yorkſhire, where lime is much uſed, that the common practice there, is, to lay it more frequently upon clays, and other heavy and moiſt grounds, than upon light and dry lands. In general, that the more remote any ſoil is from the lime-ſtone, the better will it work with lime, is the received opinion in Yorkſhire, as we were informed by ſeveral intelligent Farmers, with whom we occaſionally converſed, at different times and places.—In juſtice, however, to the chapter under conſideration, we muſt own that it contains ſome curious obſervations, which may, probably, be of uſe to the practical Huſbandman; whom we therefore refer to the work itſelf for ſatisfaction in this controverted point, which is rather too prolix to be properly abridged within the compaſs of our deſign.

Chap. XXXVII. *Of Soot.*

This chapter ſeems to be made up, chiefly, of errors, and inconſiſtencies; miſtakes, and contradictions: ſo that the beſt thing

thing we can do, is, to refer it back again to the Authors, for their reviſal and correction, (which it certainly wants) againſt the next edition.—For inſtance, is not the following *aſſertion*, ſomething like a *contradiction?* Soot is diſtinguiſhed into *two* kinds, viz. *wood*, and *coal* ſoot. 'Theſe (it is ſaid) *differ* 'very *much* in many reſpects, but *are nearly the ſame* in their 'effects, and value to the farmer.' i. e. They are *very different*, yet are they *much alike*.—Is not what follows, too, in their own words, an *inconſiſtency?* 'Soot is the *peculiar and appropriated* manure for *clayey ſoils*;'—and yet, three lines afterwards, 'there is *no ſoil whatſoever* but it ſuits.'

Chap. XXXVIII. *Of Aſhes.*

This chapter is ſomewhat akin to the former; for, in one part of it we are told, that,— *Wood-aſhes enrich a ſoil more* 'than *coal*.'—And yet in the next column we read, that—'*fifty* '*buſhels of coal-aſhes will go as far as eighty of wood*.'

This is wonderful indeed! that the *beſt* ſhould not do ſo much ſervice to the land as the *worſt:* Ergo, the worſt are beſt, and the beſt are worſt. But as it is leſs our buſineſs to *reconcile* the various inconſiſtencies of Writers, than to point them out, we ſhall take our leave of this contradictory chapter.

Chap. XXXIX. *Of Burnbaiting.*

Burnbaiting is performed by cutting off the turf of the ground, piling it up in heaps to dry, and afterwards burning it to aſhes; which aſhes are ſpread over the naked ſurface, and plowed in. It had its name, Burnbaiting, from Baite, an old Engliſh word for turf.—Few who have not ſeen the effects of Burnbaiting, could conceive (we are told) how profitable a method of dreſſing it is. And what ſhould recommend it to general conſideration, is, that it is not to be uſed on lands that are good in themſelves, but on the very pooreſt and worſt, and never fails of ſucceſs. The proper uſe of this method is, for poor, barren, ruſhy, and heathy grounds, that have lain a long time untilled, and are of little or no value. By this uſeful practice an excellent crop may be obtained from the moſt worthleſs land. The advantage, it ſeems, is not confined to *one* year; but will very well laſt *three*; and in thoſe three years it is eaſy to obtain, from ſuch a piece of ground, as much in clear profit, as would have purchaſed it at the full value. The Huſbandman is content with this, and leaves the land as he found it: for the effect of Burnbaiting does not laſt more than three years; and at the end of that time the ground is left full as poor as it was before.

This is the general complaint of moſt, who have tried this method of huſbandry; which is much practiſed in ſome parts of Yorkſhire, under the name of *paring and burning*, and is ſaid, ſometimes, to anſwer all that is reported of it in this chapter: but ſtill the land is uſually impoveriſhed by it at the laſt. To prevent ſo diſagreeable a conſequence, the following method is propoſed in this chapter.

It is obſerved, that land may be ſo exhauſted by repeated crops after Burnbaiting, as not to receive good from any thing, till recruited again by ten or twelve years reſt. Our Authors therefore adviſe the Farmer, after the firſt crop, (which will be very good of courſe) to prepare for the ſecond by any common manure. This being offered before the land is exhauſted, will be readily received by it; ſo that it may be treated in the ſame manner as a better ſoil for ever, in the common methods, and with the common advantages.

A friend, whom we have conſulted on this occaſion, ſeems to think, that *two* crops may be well enough taken after Burnbaiting; and that a proper dreſſing, by way of preparation for the *third*, would be a likely means of preſerving the land from being exhauſted. For the expence of Burnbaiting is too great for a Farmer to be at, for the benefit of a *ſingle crop only*; tho' that has ſometimes been known to be of half the value of the land whereon it grew.

Chap. XL. *Of Baſtard Burnbaiting.*

This practice conſiſts of burning the refuſe product of the land, ſuch as ſtubble, haulm, and the like, upon the ground which produced them; or whatever elſe is brought to, and laid on it for that purpoſe. The Baſtard Burnbaiting may be conſidered under *four* heads. 1. The burning of ſedge on wet lands;—a very old and ſucceſsful practice. 2. The burning the ſtubble upon corn-fields;—which is alſo an old common practice; and tho' the aſhes produced thereby are light, and but a ſmall quantity, yet the heat that is thus given to the ground, makes ſuch a dreſſing better than four times the quantity of aſhes brought from elſewhere. 3. The burning any waſte product on heaths and commons; the benefit of which is not ſufficiently known: the way is, to ſtub up the broom, or other waſte matter, piling it on heaps, and covering them with the earth that had been raiſed in getting to the roots; then burning the whole, and ſpreading the aſhes on the ground, to be plowed in. 4. The bringing on materials to the land, and burning them there; ſuch as ſticks, ſtubble, haulm, or other waſte ſtuff,

of

of any kind. The chief benefit of this laſt method does not ſo much conſiſt in the quantity of aſhes produced, as in the enlivening warmth communicated to the ground, by ſuch a number of ſmall fires made thereon, which is of itſelf a great aſſiſtant to its fruitfulneſs.

[*To be continued.*]

A new Hiſtory of the Eaſt-Indies, ancient and modern, containing the Chorography, Natural Hiſtory, Religion, Government, Manners and Cuſtoms, Revolutions, &c. of thoſe Countries. In two volumes 8vo. 10s. Dodſley.

THIS work is compoſed of a tranſlation of the Abbé Guyon's Hiſtory of the Eaſt-Indies, which was printed at Paris about thirteen years ago, and of a Supplement, taken chiefly from other Writers. We are therefore to conſider it as a kind of Introduction to the ſtudy of this ſort of knowlege, comprehending, within a very moderate compaſs, what, if treated in a manner ſuitable to the very great importance of the ſubject, and the copious materials that might be obtained, would fill two large volumes, in folio; which the judicious Reader will the more eaſily believe, when we aſſure him, that the Hiſtory of the Dominions and Commerce of the Dutch Eaſt-India Company, takes up no leſs than eight.

The French Author has endeavoured to give his Readers a general idea of his deſign, in a laboured preface, which we do not meet with in this tranſlation, and the curious Peruſer therefore will not, perhaps, be diſpleaſed to find it here, as we cannot be preſumed to comprehend the Author's plan better than he did, or run any hazard of being accuſed of partiality, when we ſuffer him to ſay what he has to offer concerning his own book.

'It is not barely their great diſtance, that has rendered the 'Indies ſo famous as may be truly ſaid of ſome other coun-'tries, placed at the very extremities of the world, the names 'of which are very well known, but of which, notwithſtand-'ing, very little can be ſaid, and ſtill leſs that one would be 'inclined to hear. All nations, on the contrary, have admit-'ed the Indies, who have ever found an entrance into them. 'The ſingularity of the country, of the inhabitants, and of 'the animals they met with, ſtruck the Macedonians more than 'all they had ſeen in the reſt of Aſia; and this idea was en-'larged in ſucceeding ages, when experience had ſhewn them,

'the riches that might be drawn from thence, in precious 'ſtones, gold, and other productions, neceſſary or uſeful. The 'Kings of Egypt, ſucceſſors of Alexander, took the pains of 'ſending thither men of letters, that they might learn from 'their relations, the religion, the laws, the manners and cuſ-'toms of a people totally different in all theſe reſpects, from 'thoſe of other nations. But as the antients penetrated no 'farther than the regions that are watered by the Indus, and the 'ſeveral ſtreams that gradually augment that mighty river, they 'could only obtain a ſmall part of thoſe informations, and of 'thoſe advantages, that have accrued to latter ages. Their nar-'ratives mentioned only the precious ſtones, gold, and animals 'that were found in theſe countries, with ſome circumſtances 'that regarded the worſhip, and the manner of living of the 'inhabitants. Theſe navigations continued while Egypt and 'the Red Sea remained under the power of the Romans, but 'under the dominion of the Saracens were entirely neglected.

'The Portugueſe, in theſe latter ages, renewed this correſ-'pondence. Having found a paſſage into theſe countries through 'the ocean, they eſtabliſhed themſelves, almoſt without 'knowing it, in the beſt country of the Indies, into which the 'antients had never penetrated, and from whence they drew 'immenſe riches: enjoying alone, for very near a century, the 'fruits of this happy diſcovery.

'The Engliſh, and the Dutch, following them to theſe diſ-'tant parts of the world, tore from them, by blood and 'ſlaughter, what they had before uſurped in the ſame manner 'from the Indians; and were for a long time employed in diſ-'puting, with each other, the poſſeſſion of towns and coun-'tries, which belonged of right to the natives of the country.

'They were eſtabliſhed in this manner, and in the poſſeſſion 'of conſiderable territories, thus acquired, when the French 'made their appearance in theſe parts, about the middle of the 'laſt century: not in the equipage of warriors, or conquerors, 'but with the ſimple view of carrying on commerce with the 'people of the country, in the ſame manner as is practiſed in 'other parts of the world. They eſtabliſhed their factories in 'ſome of the moſt trading towns; they gained the friendſhip 'of Princes, and they acquired, or rather purchaſed, the vil-'lage of Pondicherry, upon the ſea ſhore; of which they 'made a place of ſtrength, and ſurrounded it with walls which 'embrace a compaſs of two thouſand eight hundred toiſes; or, 'in other words, are about a league and a quarter in extent.

'It was by theſe gentle and legal methods that the French ac-'quired the principal eſtabliſhment which they poſſeſs in the

'Eaſt-

'East-Indies; and by the rectitude of their conduct have merited the esteem and confidence of the neighbouring Princes. 'We have seen one of these, driven from his palace, and his 'capital, imploring their succour, in order to remount his 'throne, and acknowleging this service by a free gift of a city, 'a fortress, and of several hamlets and villages, considerable 'both in point of revenue and extent; and another so sincerely 'attached to them, as to grant them permission to coin money 'which had the same currency with his own. We shall see 'them stop, as much by their intrepidity as the wisdom of their 'Governor, an army of one hundred and sixty thousand Barbarians, who had sacked and destroyed more than two hundred 'leagues of country;—giving refuge, in spite of all menaces, to 'the families of Princes whom those barbarians had slain in battle, 'and to an innumerable multitude of frighted and flying people, 'who had come to implore the assistance of the French, preferable to that of other nations, tho' more powerful;—and, 'in consequence of this, advantages and honours, heaped upon 'the French, not only by lesser Princes, but by the Mogul 'himself, in acknowlegement of such important services.

'We shall see their commerce, established by the celebrated 'Mr. Colbert, revived by the regent Duke of Orleans, supported by the Minister of the Finances, and conducted by the 'Inspector-General of the Company, with so much wisdom, 'and this attended with such great success, as, in the space of ten 'years, to have changed the whole face of affairs, and to 'execute the views of the illustrious Founder. So that since 'this time, the Actions of the Company are become the most 'advantageous and the most solid support of the State.

'It may possibly be thought that I have crowded too much, 'considering that quantity and that variety of matter, of which 'this work is composed. If this be a fault, I must confess, it 'is a fault that was committed with design. When one has 'read a great number of books, more especially those penned 'by Voyagers, and Writers of Natural History, such as I have 'consulted in the forming of this History, instead of being at a 'loss for, one is embarrassed as to the choice of matter, and 'the means of reducing into a simple and natural account, the 'facts and circumstances that we very often find at their full 'length in these diffuse Authors, such as most Travellers are, 'who, generally speaking, have a violent passion for descriptions. If I had allowed myself to copy their prolixities, it 'would have been much easier for me, to have made many 'large volumes, than three small ones; and, without doubt, 'there would have been persons who would have thought me 'more learned, if I had taken that step.

'But the experience that I have acquired in things of this 'nature, hath taught me, that this is not the beſt way of writ- 'ing Hiſtory, or of reporting the ſubſtance of Hiſtories. The 'Writer ought to imitate the Painter who attaches himſelf to 'the principal face of his ſubject, in order to render it perfectly 'known, and takes no notice of the reſt, which would render 'his picture ridiculous, if he attempted to repreſent them all. 'I know beſides, that the ſureſt way not to be read by all the 'world, is to publiſh large books; and I muſt acknowlege, 'this has determined me to write only ſmall ones, in which, 'however, I have endeavoured to comprehend what appeared 'to me moſt eſſential.

'Thoſe who would enter more deeply into ſome particular 'points, in reſpect to which, perhaps, they may be peculiarly 'intereſted, will be able to ſatisfy themſelves fully, if they will 'conſult the Authors quoted at the bottom of the page, by 'whom they have been treated at large. I have cited them as 'exactly as it is poſſible, not only as witneſſes of the truth of 'what I advance, but alſo that I might myſelf be able to have 'recourſe to them, in caſe any difficulty ſhould ariſe, or my 'Readers ſhould be inclined to examine the ſources from whence 'I have drawn the ſeveral parts of this Hiſtory. I muſt own, I 'could never comprehend, why the Abbé Renaudot cenſured 'this method.

'As theſe citations are uſually abridged, and as it is ſcarce 'poſſible to prevent ſome errors ſliding into the printed num- 'bers of books and pages, I have given a liſt of all the Authors 'and Works of which I have made any uſe, with their titles at 'large, for the benefit of thoſe who may be inclined to conſult 'them, and who, perhaps, may not be acquainted with them 'already. This is a precaution that many Authors have uſed 'before me, and therefore I am juſtified, from authority as well 'as reaſon.'

This liſt conſiſts of ten pages, and yet, notwithſtanding what the Author ſays, is but a meagre and imperfect thing. He does not mention either the ſize or the edition of the books he has quoted; and has even given the titles of many of them very imperfectly; which, we preſume, is the reaſon that the Engliſh Tranſlator has omitted it altogether. We could wiſh, that inſtead of this, it had been enlarged and improved; and it might then have been of full as much uſe as the book itſelf. Tillemont's catalogues of his Authors may ſerve for models in point of exactneſs. Father Charlevoix's ſuccinct account of the Authors upon whom he has built his Hiſtory of Japan, may be alſo

perused

peruſed with profit; or the Index of Authors ſubjoined by the learned Dean Prideaux to his Life of Mohammed, will ſhew how ſuch a thing might be formed; which, if added, would double the value of this performance.

Before we enter into the detail of Abbé Guyon's execution of his project, it may not be amiſs to remark a little upon the principles he has laid down in his preface.

One would imagine he had a mind to repreſent his countrymen as Quakers, or Methodiſts, who came into the Indies with ſuch a ſpirit of meekneſs and humility, as recommended them univerſally, wherever they came, and was a perfect contraſt to that haughty, domineering, inſolent humour, which had juſtly rendered the European nations who were there before them, as generally odious. This, if it had been true, might be reſolved into policy, in which the French were never thought deficient; but to ſpeak fairly, his repreſentation is compounded of truth and falſhood; and it may not be unacceptable to the Reader, if we ſet the matter of fact in a juſt point of light.

The perſons who carried the French into the Indies, were Meſſieurs Carron and Maxara; the former a diſcontented Dutchman, who deſerted the company's ſervice, who had ſpirit and abilities, but, at the ſame time, was rapacious, and full of reſentment. The latter, a Perſian by birth, was a Gentleman, equally diſtinguiſhed by his parts, his politeneſs, and his probity. It was by his addreſs, ſupported by an unblemiſhed integrity, that the French crept into the commerce of this part of the world; and in virtue of his obliging behaviour that they came to have great credit in ſeveral Oriental Courts. But after all, this will do no great credit to the French Councils, when it is known, that upon a quarrel with his Dutch Coadjutor, the poor Perſian was diſcarded; and tho' it is true, that upon his juſtifying himſelf fully, he was reſtored to favour, yet it is no leſs true, that his Competitor prevailed to have a ſtrong ſquadron ſent to the Indies, with which he actually ſurprized one of the Dutch Fortreſſes on the iſland of Ceylon, in conſequence of a project he had formed, to diſpoſſeſs them entirely of that iſland. It is manifeſt, therefore, that the French came here with much the ſame temper that other European nations came before them; and if in ſome places they availed themſelves of a ſpirit of equity and complaiſance, it was when they were low and feeble, and conſequently could not avail themſelves of force.

As to what this ſmooth Writer ſays, of the manner in which they acquired Pondicherry, his own Hiſtory clearly ſhews, that the French have more to boaſt of their good fortune than of their

their integrity or wisdom, in the acquisition. They procured it as a place convenient for their commerce, and they fortified it silently and imperceptibly, in the best manner their circumstances would allow; in which they followed the example, and ought not therefore to claim any preference, of other nations. But they were so lucky as to be great gainers by the loss of this place; and having parted with it in a very low and scurvy condition, to receive it back again perfectly well repaired, enlarged, beautified, and well provided in every respect, by those into whose hands it fell. The fact is, the Dutch East-India Company took it from them, after a short siege; placed a strong garrison in it, put it into excellent condition, and by virtue of the Treaty of Ryswick, concluded by the States-General, perhaps without a proper regard to the Interests of the Company, were obliged to restore it, in that condition, to its old masters, who paid them *ninety-five thousand livres* for what would have cost them ten times that sum; and thus for a ruined fort, and miserable village, they came into the possession of a large well-built town, covered by a complete fortress.

The whole of Abbé Guyon's book is wrote in the same spirit, and his countrymen are his Heroes throughout; in which he shews himself a better Frenchman than an Historian; for, with respect to the English, at least, the French cannot pretend to hold any thing in the Indies on a more just and equitable footing. It is true we have the island of Bombay in property; but this was not torn from the natives by violence; it was yielded to us by the Portuguese, who had been many years in possession. Our other places are held upon the same terms that the French hold theirs; and except that the latter, from their natural spirit of intriguing, have entered more into the affairs of the natives, and have thereby created themselves and us a great deal of trouble, and taught the natives to be equally jealous of both: so that, probably, some time or other, they will repent exchanging the character of Merchants for that of Soldiers and Politicians. But it is now time to return to the work; which the French Author has divided into three parts; the contents of each of which we shall briefly mention, as being sufficient to give a general idea of his performance.

The first part treats of the ancient Indies, and comprehends ten chapters; in which he gives us a topographical description of the ancient Indies, the religion of the old inhabitants, the history of their Kings, the different orders in the state, the character and manners of the Indians, the animals found in these countries, the revolutions that have happened in them, and the commerce of the antients. The two last chapters contain the revolutions

revolutions of the Indies in the middle ages; the interruption, and renewing of the voyages to theſe countries; and the eſtabliſhment (after diſcovering a paſſage to them by the Cape of Good Hope) of the Portugueſe.

The ſecond part treats of the modern Indies, and begins with a chorographical deſcription of them, diſtinguiſhed into the eſtates of the Great Mogul; of the Peninſula within the Ganges; of the Peninſula beyond the Ganges; and the principal iſlands of the Eaſt-Indies. He then proceeds to treat of the religions which prevail in this country at preſent; and firſt of the Idolaters, next of the Indian Jews, then of the Mohammedans; the Indian Chriſtians follow next, by whom he means the Papiſts; then the Neſtorians, and laſtly the Proteſtants, whom he has ſufficiently abuſed, tho' he beſtows but a ſingle page upon them, in which it is very hard to ſay, whether he has ſhewn greater ignorance or partiality: for which, however, his Tranſlator, who here concludes his firſt volume, is not accountable.

The third part of the Abbé Guyon's work comprehends the commerce of the Indies, and is divided into two chapters: the firſt, after a general deſcription of the trade of theſe eaſtern countries, ſpeaks diſtinctly of the commerce of the Portugueſe, then of the Dutch, next of the Engliſh, after them of the Danes, and laſtly of the Venetians. This part of the work does not appear in the Engliſh tranſlation, or at leaſt does not appear there as a part of the tranſlation, but is wrought into the ſecond part of the Engliſh work; and indeed according to the Writer's plan, this is very properly managed, for the Frenchman is ſo very conciſe, and in ſuch great haſte to come down to the exploits of his own countrymen, that he omits many things that are very material, and is far from repreſenting the concerns of thoſe nations in the Indies, ſo as to give the Reader a juſt idea of their importance. But, at the ſame time, we muſt allow, that a tolerable apology may be made for the Abbé Guyon, as well as for his Tranſlator.

The ſole, or at leaſt the great point the former had in view, was to ſtimulate his own nation to the love and ſupport of commerce, as the true ſource of plenty and power; and more eſpecially to engage them to conſider the Company of the Indies as the center of French commerce. This is that principal *face*, which, to adopt his own phraſe, he meant to preſent to the public in his picture, and upon this he reſts the merit of his work. This, however, was not the deſign of his Tranſlator, who had in view, a general and impartial Hiſtory of the Commerce of all Nations, who have any thing to do in this part of the world; and therefore he could no farther proſecute an exact tranſlation

of

of his Author, conſiſtently with his own plan. This we thought we were in juſtice obliged to ſay, as well in reference to him, as from a regard to the public, and to truth.

The ſecond volume begins, therefore, with the Hiſtory of the French Commerce, and is a faithful tranſlation of the ſecond chapter of the French Writer's third part. It is like the reſt of his work, rather *Memoirs* interſperſed with *Remarks*, than an accurate and well connected Hiſtory: but it is however, in ſome curious and remarkable paſſages, very perſpicuous, and ſhews us with how great difficulty the project of a French Eaſt-India Company, tho' encouraged and protected by the beſt Princes, tho' methodized and patronized by their ableſt Miniſters, Richlieu and Colbert, was brought to any degree of conſiſtence. He ſtates very freely and fairly, the means by which it miſcarried, in ſpite of all the endeavours of the wiſeſt Miniſters to ſupport it, and the concurrent aſſiſtance of the royal authority. He ſhews how a multitude of accidents contributed, when the old Company was ruined, and the Eaſt-India trade ſeemed to be buried under its ruins, to the ſcheme of the late Regent, which he contrived to revive and reſtore it, in a manner againſt all appearances, and to a degree, perhaps, beyond his own expectations; and this he does in a very agreeable eaſy manner, and without mixing more of panegyric than this part of his ſubject really deſerves, on thoſe who by an honeſt dexterity, drew order out of confuſion, and converted a plan of ſtock-jobbing and fraud, into a national benefit.

It muſt, however, be admitted, that there is ſomewhat confuſed in his manner of blending the account of the ſyſtem with the hiſtory of the French commerce in the Indies; and this, like the reſt of his imperfections, ariſes from an affectation of conciſeneſs, and a deſire of compreſſing a great variety of materials into a ſmall compaſs; though at the ſame time he inſerts memorials, edicts, and letters, the ſubſtance of which had been ſufficient, and would have afforded him room to have treated ſeveral points with greater preciſion. The Public is notwithſtanding very much obliged to him for his performance, which enables us to form many reflections upon the eſtabliſhment and progreſs of a commercial ſociety, that has already made a great noiſe, and that hereafter, perhaps, may occupy, in a ſtill higher degree, not only the attention of France, but of other nations, at leaſt ſuch other nations as ſhare with them, at preſent, the commerce of the Eaſt.

Amongſt theſe there are two or three remarks, that, perhaps, will not be improper in this place. The firſt is, that the French are the only nation in Europe, where the interpoſition of Miniſters,

fters, hath been of any real ſervice to trade. Richlieu, Colbert, and Orie, have planted, cultivated, and with indefatigable pains, have brought this correſpondence with the oriental nations to bear fruit. Their ſagacity, their vigilance, and above all, their perſeverance, is truly admirable, and furniſh abundant proof of what great men may do, who mean well to their country, and at the ſame time are ſo happy as to know their own meanings. This commerce has been alſo lucky in another reſpect, beyond that of any other nation. At the time the company's affairs were in the greateſt diſtraction and diſtreſs, they were ſerved with the utmoſt fidelity by thoſe who had the direction of their affairs in the Indies. They *ſtarved* there, it is true, but they *ſtarved* with dignity, and with ſuch reputation for honeſty, that they found reſources in their perſonal credit, even when their maſters had loſt theirs. The laſt remark we ſhall make is, that the integrity of thoſe people ſaved this trade from extinction; for though at laſt, by the interpoſition and addreſs of the Regent and his Miniſters, they received ſupplies that ſet them upon their legs again, yet if they had been leſs able, or leſs honeſt, than they were, this aſſiſtance had come too late. Theſe are circumſtances of great moment, and worthy the mature conſideration of every commercial people.

We come now to the ſecond part of the Engliſh work, which is a compilation, and not a tranſlation. This is divided into four books, in which we have the hiſtory of the commerce of other nations in the Indies; and here the Author appears greatly embarraſſed by that preference which he has given to the work of the Abbé Guyon, for he is obliged to go back in point of time, in order to give the hiſtory of the commerce of the Portugueſe, the firſt of the European nations, who diſcovered a paſſage to the Indies by ſea, and thereby made the ſmalleſt kingdom in Chriſtendom, by far the richeſt; and, conſidered in the light of a maritime ſtate, the moſt powerful.

He divides his firſt book into twenty-one chapters, in which and we have the riſe, progreſs, and decay of the Portugueſe empire in the Indies. This is a ſubject that has been largely treated by their own, and other hiſtorians, and very lately too, in a maſterly way by a French Writer, whoſe work has but one imperfection, which is, its ſtopping in the middle. Our Author was therefore not at all at a loſs for materials; the only difficulty was to reduce them within tolerable bounds: which he has done, and thrown in that deſcription of the Portugueſe dominions, in the time of their proſperity, which had been ſketched by the Abbé Guyon, and which is one of the beſt finiſhed parts in his book. He has alſo had recourſe to a modern Writer, in our own language, whom, as he gives no authorities,

he may be excuſed for not citing; more eſpecially as he has given this part of the work the modeſt title of an *Eſſay*.

He obſerves, after the Author before mentioned, that notwithſtanding the great declenſion of the power, the wealth, and the trade of theſe antient poſſeſſors of the Indies, they ſtill preſerve a few ſtrong places, ſo happily ſituated, that if they were in the hands of an active and induſtrious nation, would enable them to ſecure a great part of the trade of the Indies. Theſe places are the iſland and fortreſs of Diu, the great city and convenient port of Goa, the town and port of Macao, on the coaſt of China, and a large iſland behind the Dutch ſettlements, where the natives, though black, are Chriſtians, and very proud of being called Portugueſe. Yet there ſeems to be but little room to hope this nation will ever avail herſelf of theſe reſources, for if ſhe could not keep the empire of the Indies, when thoroughly eſtabliſhed, and when ſhe had troops, fortreſſes, and fleets in every part, how ſhould ſhe retrieve it in her preſent diſtreſſed and diſtracted condition? Beſides, the power of the inquiſition is as abſolute in the ſmall territory ſhe ſtill holds, as in her former empire, which renders every kind of improvement exceedingly difficult, if not impracticable. The Viceroys alſo are continually at war with the natives, and exhauſt the ſmall remaining ſtrength of their colonies in diſputes that render their navigation perilous and precarious, and which, with regard to commerce at leaſt, will very ſoon annihilate it.

His ſecond book regards the trade of the Dutch in the Eaſt Indies, and is not divided into chapters. There ſeems to be no juſt reaſon for giving the Dutch priority or place before *ourſelves*; for though it be true, that they had an Eaſt India company before any ſuch ſociety ſubſiſted in England, yet the Engliſh had viſited and paſſed through the Indian ſeas, long before them; and it was by the aſſiſtance of our pilots that they made their firſt voyages thither. With reſpect to the power and grandeur of their company, we muſt allow them to be ſuperior; but if this gives them any title to be preferred to us, they ought alſo to precede all other nations. The chronological method is, however, by far the beſt, and, indeed, the only one by which repetition and confuſion can be avoided, or the hiſtory of tranſactions in theſe parts of the world ſo repreſented, as to give the reader a clear and conſiſtent idea of this important ſubject, in all its branches. A ſubject, indeed, of ſuch importance, as the next paragraph will plainly demonſtrate, that all poſſible encouragement ſhould be given to examine it thoroughly, and make it generally and clearly underſtood.

It appears from his ſuccinct Eſſay on the affairs of the Dutch Eaſt India company, that as, on the one hand, they have conſtantly

ſtantly received great countenance, extenſive powers, and effectual protection from the States General; ſo the company, on the other hand, have paid the public very nobly for all theſe benefits, and upon particular emergencies have contributed largely for the ſervice of the commonwealth. It appears, that the dominion they have eſtabliſhed in the Eaſt, may very juſtly be ſtiled an empire, perhaps after China and Japan, the moſt conſiderable in that part of the world. They hold this in full property, exerciſing ſovereign authority over their ſubjects, in eccleſiaſtical, civil, and military affairs. The city of Batavia is a capital ſuitable to ſuch an empire; the Governor-General lives there with the ſtate of a great Prince; and ſeveral of his Counſellors govern, as Vice-roys, very large dominions. The plan of government is uniform and correct, and thoroughly and univerſally obeyed. They have fleets, armies, and treaſures equal to their occaſions; are revered by all the Princes and States in their neighbourhood; and, indeed, give law to moſt of them. The advantages reſulting from this beneficial commerce, to the ſubjects of the United Provinces, is almoſt beyond the reach of computation; for to ſay nothing of the immenſe ſums ſpent in building, manning, rigging, victualling, and freighting their ſhips annually ſent to the Indies, the dividends that have been paid to the proprietors of their ſtock, amount to ſums aſtoniſhing, and almoſt incredible. The original capital of this great company was very little more than ſix hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, and they have paid ſince their eſtabliſhment, fifteen hundred millions of our money in dividends. The republic of Holland, therefore, has no need to envy the Spaniards their Indies; and the wealth brought in by this company, may well conſole her for the loſs of the gold mines in Brazil.

The third book regards the affairs of the Engliſh Eaſt India company. It appears from hence, that the trade managed from this iſland with the rich countries of the Eaſt, has been ſubject to various interruptions, great inconveniences, and, till within theſe laſt threeſcore years, almoſt perpetual incertainties. When we firſt traded thither, our capitals were but ſmall, the powers granted to our companies much reſtrained, and the maritime force of the nation ſeldom employed in their protection. This gave the Dutch great advantages, and how much ſoever the two nations might be friends in Europe, we learn from facts, that they ſeldom *appeared*, and more ſeldom *were*, *real* friends to each other in the Indies. By this we ſuffered exceedingly, more eſpecially in the deteſtable affair of Amboyna, by which we loſt our ſhare in the ſpice trade, and were ſoon after wormed out of our correſpondence with Japan; which, whatever they may be now, were the original ſources of the immenſe profits ariſing

to our rivals; by which they were enabled to eſtabliſh ſuch a power as we could no longer cope with: and during the time of our melancholy civil wars, this power rooted itſelf ſo deep, and extended ſo wide, that it was in vain for us to renew our pretenſions to our antient rights, which by our competitors availing themſelves of thoſe ſiniſter accidents, have been long ago effectually extinguiſhed.

The preſent Eaſt India company are, however, a very reſpectable body; have many conſiderable ſettlements, in different parts of the Indies; and carry on a very flouriſhing trade there: the profits of which, as well as that between Europe and the Indies, center at laſt here, and cannot but be very beneficial to the nation. There have, however, been various ſuſpicions, as if this trade muſt be carried on to ſtill greater advantage without an excluſive company. Our Author has given place to a paper made public in ſupport of this notion, as well as to the arguments that have been offered againſt it. The preſent critical ſituation of things renders it very improper to enter into a long diſcuſſion of points which are certainly of a very delicate nature, and withal very difficult to be underſtood, as the lights neceſſary to form a right judgment, are not in private people's power.

The fourth and laſt book conſiſts of three chapters. The firſt reſpects the Oſtend company, and contains an abridgment of the diſpute which the erecting of that company occaſioned between the courts of Vienna and Madrid, on one ſide, and thoſe of Verſailles, London, and the Hague, on the other. The grounds of the controverſy were, in few words, theſe; the Spaniſh Low Countries were diſabled by treaties from carrying on any ſuch commerce as this; they had been yielded by France to the Houſe of Auſtria, under the reſtrictions ſettled by theſe treaties, and they had been before conquered for the Houſe of Auſtria, by the maritime Powers, who, as well as France, had an intereſt in ſupporting theſe reſtrictions. In order to maintain this company, amongſt other reaſons, the late Emperor Charles VI. and his late Catholic Majeſty, Philip V. concluded the treaty of Vienna, in oppoſition to which the treaty of Hanover took place between France and the maritime Powers. At length, however, theſe quarrels were determined by a long and perplexed negotiation, and the new Oſtend company abſolutely ſuppreſſed.

The Daniſh Eaſt India company is the ſubject of the next chapter, in which our Author again departs from chronological order; for, in point of time, the Daniſh company came next to the Dutch; but having, out of complaiſance to the Abbe Guyon, placed

placed the French company firſt, it of courſe threw this part of his work into diſorder, and yet there does not want a reaſon for his placing the Daniſh company here: for he ſeems to have reſpect to the new additional charter, granted by the late King, in conſequence of a project formed by ſome of the Oſtend adventurers, and againſt which the maritime Powers, treating it as a new company, began a warm oppoſition. His Daniſh Majeſty, however, underſtood his own rights, and the conſequences of this commerce, too well, to give way even to an oppoſition that had been hitherto ſo ſucceſsful againſt two of the greateſt powers in Europe. He aſſerted, that from the earlieſt times the Danes had diſtinguiſhed themſelves by their naval force, and maritime expedition. He took notice, that this very company had already ſubſiſted more than a century; that his ſubjects had been for the beſt part of that time in poſſeſſion of the city, fortreſs, and port of Tranquebar, on the coaſt of Coromandel; and that there was no colour for their diſputing with him, whether he ſhould grant new privileges and advantages to his own ſubjects, in order to encourage them to proſecute this commerce with more alacrity. In conſequence of theſe reaſons the oppoſition was gradually let fall, and the Danes have ever ſince purſued their trade with greater ſpirit, and, as themſelves ſay, (who ought to be the beſt judges) with better ſucceſs. There is one circumſtance that does great honour to this company, or rather to this crown; viz. that they have taken leſs pains to render the commerce of the Indies beneficial to themſelves, than to the natives; to whom they have kindly vouchſafed their protection, upon very eaſy terms; and have beſtowed much trouble, accompanied with no ſmall expence, in which the Engliſh have alſo joined, to convert the inhabitants, the Indian Pagans more eſpecially, to the Chriſtian religion: in which pious and charitable work, they have had the viſible aſſiſtance of Providence, and poſterity will very probably attribute the progreſs of their trade to the Divine Bleſſing upon their labours.

Our Author, in his laſt chapter, treats of the Swediſh company, which is alſo generally conſidered as ſpringing from the root of the Oſtend company, though at the ſame time it muſt be acknowleged, that Guſtavus Adolphus erected an Eaſt India company almoſt a century and an half ago; but it came to nothing, and therefore the company erected in the late reign, is looked upon as a new one. In this light it met alſo with ſome oppoſition, but his Swediſh Majeſty acted with ſuch firmneſs, and the nation, which is not always the caſe, concurred ſo roundly with the King and his Miniſters, that it was quickly got over, or rather fell of itſelf. Though it may ſeem ſtrange, that the maritime Powers ſhould interpoſe, in relation to theſe

two companies, which ſtood upon foundations perfectly different from that of the company which had been erected in the Low Countries, it will nevertheleſs appear natural enough, when the Reader is told, that Joſhua Van Aſperen, and Henry Koning, the principal proprietors of theſe companies, were alſo embarked in that of Oſtend; and that the Danes and Swedes more eſpecially were aſſiſted in carrying on theſe ſchemes, by ſome of the ſubjects of the maritime Powers.

The Pruſſian company, or, as it is generally ſtiled, the company of Embden, is not mentioned by our Author; and, indeed, there is as yet but very little to be ſaid of it; but, perhaps, when the affairs of Europe ſhall again ſettle into profound peace, this company, which ſeems at preſent ſuſpended, may lift up its head once more. However that may be, there are ſome other powers that have heretofore had ſome ſhare in this commerce, that ſtill preſerve ſome remains of the ſhare they had, and that poſſibly may one day put in for a larger: which a writer who would examine this matter to the bottom, will not fail to mention, and of which we will conclude this article with giving a few hints.

In the firſt place, the Italian ſtates, particularly Venice and Genoa, were once ſole maſters of this trade, though it does not appear that either of them ever ſent their ſhips to the Indies. The Venetians ſucceeded the Greeks in the management of this commerce, through Egypt, while under the dominion of the Khaliffs and the Mamalukes; and it was the principal ſource of the immenſe wealth, extenſive trade, and great naval power of that celebrated republic. The Genoeſe fell upon a different route, and being poſſeſſed of the city and port of Caffa, in Crim Tartary, dealt largely in Eaſt-India commodities, which, after coming a great way by land, were at length tranſported thither over the Pontus Euxinus. Both theſe methods of correſpondence are, in a great meaſure ceaſed; but it does not, however, follow from thence, that they may never be revived, more eſpecially if what a very intelligent and judicious Author has obſerved be true, that ſpices, and many other rich commodities, arrived by theſe routes, much freſher and in a higher degree of perfection, than they come to us at preſent; which we muſt allow has ſome probability on its ſide.

The Spaniards have alſo very conſiderable dominions in the Eaſt Indies, though Abbe Guyon has ſcarce afforded them a dozen lines; and their Acapulco ſhip is of more value than the whole commerce of ſome of the companies to which he has vouchſafed particular articles. It cannot, indeed, be denied, that the Spaniards have been for a long courſe of years very neg-

negligent, or rather diſinclined to the trade of the Eaſt Indies, having always conſidered it in one point of view, as a clog upon their American dominions: but we are not ſure that they will always conſider it in this light; and we know very well, that whenever they conſider it in another, it may be turned highly to their advantage. At all events, when this ſubject is treated with any exactneſs, the Spaniards, who are maſters of the Philippines, and may be maſters when they pleaſe of the whole Archipelago of St. Lazarus, will not be left out of the number of thoſe powers that are intereſted in the commerce of the Indies.

The laſt we ſhall mention is the Ruſſians, who carry on a very conſiderable trade by land with China, and may carry on a yet more conſiderable one, whenever they are ſo diſpoſed, with Japan, and the iſles dependant upon it, and other countries, perhaps, that are at preſent unknown to us. All theſe, and it may be ſome other points, will fall under the cognizance of thoſe who conſider the oriental commerce in its full extent, which always was, and, perhaps, ever will be, the firſt wheel in that vaſt machine of traffic which circulates the bleſſings that Providence has beſtowed on the different parts of this terraqueous globe.

The work that is now before us, may be conſidered as a uſeful and agreeable introduction to this kind of ſcience. It certainly contains a variety of materials, ſome of them curious, many inſtructive, and all of them pleaſant. We may therefore hope that it will anſwer the end of its Author, and excite that laudable curioſity which will, of courſe, induce its Readers to enquire for what may ſatisfy their thirſt of knowlege, in works of greater extent. We may alſo wiſh to ſee the French Writer's plan divided, and the ſeveral parts of it executed, in a more ſcientific method. The geography of the Indies might employ even a laborious writer, for many years; and a perfect work of that kind would be very acceptable to the world. The civil and political hiſtory of theſe countries, for which there are already vaſt materials, (and much more might be eaſily obtained) would fill up a great chaſm, that has been long regretted by the lovers of this ſort of knowlege, who are very little edified with the ſhort imperfect abridgments that have hitherto appeared. The religion of the Indies is another curious and copious ſubject, upon which we have very little that is certain or intelligible. The natural hiſtory of the Eaſt, has never been digeſted into a proper method, or examined with that ſkill and care which it deſerves. It muſt be confeſſed, that the hiſtory of commerce, and of companies, has been, of late years more eſpecially, diſcuſſed with greater abilities and exactneſs than any of the other branches; but there are many things ſtill wanting, to render even this complete.

An Eſſay on the Nature, Cauſes, and Cure of the contagious Diſtemper among the Horned Cattle in theſe Kingdoms. By Daniel Peter Layard, *M. D. Member of the Royal College of Phyſicians, in London, and of the Royal Society.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Rivington.

THE Author attributes the cauſe of this diſtemper to peſtilential effluvia, of a very ſubtle and active nature, taken in either by inſpiration, or deglutition, firſt vitiating the fluids, then relaxing, and laſtly, deſtroying the ſolids of the cattle; and thinks that the ſeveral ſtages, progreſs, and effects of this contagious diſtemper, exactly reſemble thoſe of the ſmall-pox, and, therefore, that the method of cure ſhould be analogous.

The ſymptoms of the diſtemper are, upon 'the firſt appearance of this infection, a decreaſe of appetite; a poking out of the neck, implying ſome difficulty in deglutition; a ſhaking of the head, as if the ears were tickled; a hanging down of the ears, and deafneſs; a dimneſs of the eyes; and a moving to and fro in a conſtant uneaſineſs. All theſe ſigns, except the laſt, increaſe till the fourth day. Then a ſtupidity and unwillingneſs to move; great debility, a total loſs of appetite, a running at the eyes and noſe, ſometimes ſickneſs, and throwing up of bile, a huſky cough and ſhivering. The head, horns, and breath are very hot, while the body and limbs are cold. The fever, which was continual the three firſt days, now riſes and increaſes towards evenings; the pulſe is all along quick, contracted, and uneven. A conſtant diarrhœa, or ſcowering of fœtid green fæces, a ſtinking breath, and nauſeous ſteams from the ſkin, infect the air they are placed in. The blood is very florid, hot, and frothy. The urine, or ſtale, is high coloured; the roofs of their mouths, and their barbs, are ulcerated. Tumours, or boils, are to be felt under the *panniculus carnoſus*, or fleſhy membrane of the ſkin: and eruptions appear all along their limbs, and about their bags. If a new milch cow be thus ill, her milk dries up gradually, her purging is more violent, and on the fourth day ſhe is commonly dry. There is ſuch acrimony, or ſharpneſs in their dung, that a viſible irritation is to be obſerved during ſome time, *in ano*. They groan much, are worſe in the evening, and moſtly lying down. Theſe ſymptoms continue increaſing, till the ſeventh day from the invaſion, on which generally, though ſometimes protracted till the ninth, the criſis, or turn, takes place.'

If after the ſeventh day from the invaſion (at which time a criſis may be expected) 'the eruptions, boils, or abſceſſes

'ſceſſes are decreaſed in bulk, or totally diſappeared, without 'having broke, or diſcharged outwardly,'—or an aggravation of the ſymptoms already mentioned, with no intermiſſion,—it may be aſſuredly pronounced, the beaſt will die.

As to the cure, immediately upon the firſt appearance of the diſtemper, the beaſt ſhould be put into ſome place where it may be kept clean, warm, and free as poſſible from infectious ſteams of other beaſts in the ſame condition. The beaſt muſt be bled in proportion to its ſtrength, waſhed with warm water and vinegar, to clear the hair from filth and inſects, and rubbed every morning and evening, for a quarter of an hour, with a dry linnen or woollen cloth, or ſtraw, to promote perſpiration. A rowel alſo is to be made in the dewlap, to draw the humours to that part; which is to be dreſſed twice every day: which rowel is to be kept in a month at leaſt after the recovery of the beaſt.

Should the beaſt be hot, hang down his head, breathe with difficulty after the bleeding, dung hard, and the ſkin feel tight and thick, which is called being hide-bound; then it will be very proper to give a gentle, cooling purge in this firſt ſtage. When the beaſt has voided the hardened dung, or if it ſhould not have wanted purging, the following drench is to be given. Take of madder-root, three ounces; of turmeric and horſe-raddiſh-root, each one ounce; of fenugreek-ſeeds, bruiſed, two ounces; of chamomile-flowers, dried leaves of feverfew, rue, and ſage, of each one handful. Boil them half an hour in a gallon of ſmall ale, well hopped, to three quarts; then ſtrain the liquor, and give the beaſt three pints in the morning, and the remainder in the evening. No dry or ſolid fodder is to be offered till the beaſt cheweth the cud. Between theſe drenches, a quart or two of diſtilled vinegar-whey muſt be given frequently in the day, to dilute the hardening fodder, and ſtrengthen the coats of the ſtomach; and hay-water may be alſo given. Great care muſt be had, twice or thrice a day, to cleanſe the mouths, barbs, and noſtrils of the diſtempered cattle, with ſome abſterging, acidulated liquid. On the fourth day, if the beaſt be heavy, dull, ſhivering, no pimples or knots ariſe, and a purging be coming on, the following drench muſt be given, at about eight in the evening, and repeated three or four nights, as occaſion requires. Take of Virginia ſnake-root, contrayerva-root, chamomile-flowers powdered, of each half an ounce; venice-treacle, ſix drachms: mix all theſe in three pints of vinegar-whey, and give the drench lukewarm. Let a perſon ſit up all night with the beaſt, and give it frequently a quart of vinegar-whey. Venice-treacle may alſo be ſerviceable; and if there be any ſigns of mortification from the dark and relaxed

appearance of the mouth, the coldneſs of the ſkin, the black fœtid dung, inſenſibility, &c. the Peruvian-bark muſt be inſtantly given every four or ſix hours, as occaſion may require, taking the uſual medicines in the intermediate ſpaces. If the morbid matter ſhould be depoſited in the horns, which is known by the head's being ſtill hung down on one ſide more than the other, and a heat is felt in the horn, while the body is temperate; it will be proper to bore the horns about three inches below the tip, without wounding the pith, to give vent to the matter. In the laſt ſtage, let the ſwellings that puff up the ſkin be opened and digeſted; and after the criſis takes place, if a ſcowering ſhould enſue, it is not to be haſtily ſtopped, though diligently watched and reſtrained, leſt it weaken the beaſt too much; and to cleanſe the bowels and ſtomach, let a purge of rhubarb, ſenna, &c. be given. 'Let the beaſt drink water-'gruel lukewarm, and be kept on dry meat, though ſparingly; 'and at night give an ounce of electuary of ſcordium, com-'monly called diaſcordium, in a quart or three pints of ſmall 'ale, warm. But if after the criſis the beaſt is coſtive, and the 'ſkin be dry, harſh, and tight on the fleſh; dunging may be 'procured, by giving in the evening a meſh of bran, with an 'handful of beans bruiſed, and an ounce of Epſom ſalt. How-'ever, I cannot avoid recommending the greateſt exactneſs in 'obſerving that the criſis is over; for the leaſt laxative medi-'cine, or opening food, given at the ακμη, or height of the 'diſeaſe, and conſequently in the former ſtages of expulſion 'and maturation, will certainly bring on a ſcowering, attended 'with fatal conſequences, or at leaſt very difficult to be re-'moved.'—In winter time, the cattle, upon recovery, ſhould not be turned out at once into the paſture-grounds, let them be never ſo dry: but towards the middle of the day, in fair weather, turning them out two hours, and then bringing them in again, will gradually uſe them to the open air. In ſummer, morning and evening will be the moſt ſuitable time; for the heat of the ſun, or exceſſive cold, may bring on other diſorders.

A farmer had already loſt ten head of cattle, two more were dying, and ſeven others ill, when Dr. Layard took upon him the direction of the ſeven which were laſt fallen ill. By the preceding treatment five of theſe recovered. One cow, very near her time of calving, died; and the ſeventh was certainly loſt for want of obſerving the due time of the criſis, and purging too ſoon.

The

The Lives of Cleopatra and Octavia. By the Author of David Simple. 4to. 10s. 6d. Printed for the Author, and ſold by Millar, &c.

IT were ſuperfluous to compliment the Author of David Simple upon her merits as a Writer; nor muſt we ſuppoſe our Readers ignorant of characters that have been drawn by Shakeſpear, Sidley, and Dryden. Suffice it therefore, that we give a ſhort account of the purpoſe and plan of this performance, with a few ſpecimens of the Lady's colouring.

To excite an abhorrence of vice, by expoſing its deformity and wretchedneſs, tho' attended with the dazzling circumſtances of pomp and power; and to inſpire a reverence for even afflicted virtue, by exhibiting its preſent amiableneſs, and laſting felicity; is the manifeſt deſign of this publication: nor does Hiſtory furniſh any two characters ſtronger contraſted, or more adequate to this, certainly, commendable purpoſe, than thoſe here choſen.

With reſpect to the plan of this work, let our Author ſpeak for herſelf. 'The famous amours of Anthony and Cleopatra,' ſays ſhe, 'having a true foundation, will more effectually im-'preſs the fatal conſequences of a mad intoxicated Lover, and 'a falſe inſinuating Woman, than may be expected from the 'moſt admired or accompliſhed novels; and the diſtreſſes of a 'virtuous Octavia will excite a more laſting ſenſibility of pity 'or relentment, than can be indulged from the moſt pathetic 'deſcriptions of Romance. For in the latter the Reader ſeldom 'ſo far forgets himſelf, as not to recollect that the characters 'are imaginary and feigned; whereas the former, like true 'mirrours, reflect the real images of our perſons.

'Theſe ſuperior advantages of real characters induced the 'Author of the Lives of Cleopatra and Octavia, to ſelect the 'moſt intereſting parts of their hiſtories for the entertainment 'of the public. But as the modern reliſh for works of imagi-'nation would almoſt tempt her to deſpair of approbation with-'out ſome mixture of romance, ſhe has, in complaiſance to this 'taſte, introduced the lives of thoſe Ladies, as ſuppoſed to have 'been delivered by themſelves in the ſhades below. By which me-'thod the Reader may at leaſt expect a more impartial, diſtinct, 'and exact narrative of their ſeveral adventures, and of the 'motives they were influenced by; unleſs he is ſo inveterately 'prejudiced in diſfavour of the fair-ſex, as to preſume, with 'the ill-natured ſatyriſt, that a woman is not to be credited, 'any more than truſted, tho' dead.

'The Author begs leave to account for her interview with 'thoſe Heroines, as Homer, Virgil, Ariſtophanes, Lucan, and 'others, have, on the like occaſion, through the aſſiſtance of 'an eaſtern Sorcerer or Magician, who conveyed her to the 'gloomy realms of Pluto, and by his intereſt at court, prevail-'ed on that grand Monarch to command thoſe celebrated Shades 'to give her a faithful detail of their lives during their abode 'on earth. There was no diſputing his orders; and the on-'ly ſhadow the imperious Queen of Egypt retained of her 'former royalty, was the permiſſion granted her to take place 'of Octavia in the recital of her ſtory.'

Proceed we now to diſcharge the laſt part of our promiſe. Thus Cleopatra is made to deſcribe herſelf: 'As I was naturally 'of a diſpoſition ſo ſelfiſh, as to direct every perſon, and to center 'every deſire within the narrow compaſs of my own gratifi-'cation; and as this talent was likewiſe improved by educa-'tion, my elevated fancy (even whilſt I was yet very young) 'looked upon the reſt of mankind with the utmoſt contempt; 'and I conſidered them as no more capable of feeling, than if 'they were inanimate.—The pleaſures or pains of others were 'to me of ſo little importance, that I lived as if I had been the 'only creature on earth who had any ſenſation. And yet, had 'mankind been ſo unſuſceptible of pleaſure or pain, how ſhould 'I have been diſappointed in purſuing my revenge on thoſe who, 'in any manner, piqued my pride, in not paying me the ador-'ation which I thought my due.'

The character of Mark Anthony, his fitneſs to become the dupe of artifice, and Cleopatra's contrivances to continue him ſo, are not unaptly painted.—'Anthony was very apt to place 'a full confidence in the integrity of others: a fine diſpoſition 'to be managed by the woman he liked! He was naturally 'ſincere, though ſomewhat ſlow of apprehenſion, but as ſoon 'as he was made ſenſible of his faults, much troubled, and rea-'dy to aſk pardon of thoſe he had offended. This was true of 'him in general; how then would he fawn and cringe when 'he had offended his Miſtreſs! It was impoſſible for a woman of 'my pride or ambition to have met with a Lover more ſuited 'to indulge her inclinations.

'His raillery was very ſharp; but the edge of it was taken 'off, and rendered inoffenſive, by his ſuffering any kind of re-'partee; for he was as well contented to be handſomely rallied, 'as he was to rally others. This diſpoſition was the beſt cal-'culated for treachery to work on; for the freedoms that were 'taken with him, on his own permiſſion, he imagined aroſe from 'open honeſty; and therefore could not fear deceit from thoſe

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'who dealt thus freely with him. Beſides, this kind of half-'ſatire is one of the moſt refined flatteries, when it is made uſe 'of to thoſe whoſe power over us is acknowleged; as it plainly 'conveys the higheſt compliment to the perſons who condeſcend 'willingly to grant ſuch liberties to their inferiors.

'I obſerved, that great uſe was made of this liberty in buſi-'neſs of importance; for upon examining any difficulty, his 'Flatterers ordered their affairs ſo as they might ſeem not to yield 'to him out of complaiſance, but becauſe he had a reach above, 'and a penetration ſuperior to, others.

'Anthony was, as I have ſaid, naturally of a very open diſ-'poſition; and this being improved by love, could ſcarce fail 'of producing his ruin, when his love had once enſlaved him to 'a woman of art; who conſidered him only as the means of 'ſatisfying her ambition, or indulging her capricious humour, 'without having affection enough for him, to make his inter-'eſt, his honour, or his happineſs, points worthy her conſi-'deration.

'Such then was his fate at preſent. For notwithſtanding all 'the appearance of fondneſs which I put on, and which I acted 'to a degree of perfection that muſt have impoſed on any 'man, who was in reality what I affected to be; and notwith-'ſtanding all my warm expreſſions which carried love up to ex-'travagance, and almoſt to madneſs; I had, in plain truth, 'no other value for this great Hero, than as he was the means 'of my power, and the inſtrument of my ambition.

'The firſt thing I did as ſoon as I perceived my unlimited 'ſway over Anthony, was as much as poſſible to ſet him and 'all his friends at variance; for I knew his friends muſt be my 'enemies; as they not being blinded by love, as he was, 'would perceive my intentions of continually deceiving him. 'Beſides, I conſidered that I ſhould have double the trouble to per-'ſuade him to follow my advice, whilſt he converſed with others, 'who would be perpetually perſuading him to act the contrary 'part. And as I did not care to truſt him to the converſation of 'thoſe who were really his friends, ſo I did not chuſe that he 'ſhould have too frequent opportunities of converſing with 'himſelf. I placed therefore all my own creatures about him; 'and thus, inſtead of fearing oppoſition, I was always ſecure of 'having my counſel well ſeconded, by thoſe who were as indif-'ferent as myſelf to any ill conſequences, which might attend 'Anthony, from following it.

'For example; Anthony was ſomewhat haſty in his temper, 'and if ever that drove him to be unreaſonable to another, I was

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'ſure to throw the blame in the wrong place, in order to juſtify 'and bring him into good humour with himſelf; till he admir-'ed my judgment, and was in raptures at my love for him. 'On the contrary, if any one dared to offend me, I made An-'thony abuſe and treat them ill, only becauſe it was my pleaſure 'it ſhould be ſo: nor did he even preſume to aſk what was the 'nature of their offence; becauſe he knew that would put me 'out of humour, and I ſhould reproach him with not having 'faith enough in my underſtanding to depend on my judgment 'of diſtinguiſhing right from wrong.

'Thus he returned a little flattery which coſt me nothing, by 'ſoothing my humour, at the expence of his friendſhip, his 'honour, his juſtice, and his underſtanding. But what ſealed 'him moſt firmly my ſlave, was his greedy love of pleaſure; 'for as my ſmiles were his ſatisfaction, and my frowns his tor-'ment, this placed him quite in my power; ſince I could in-'flict the latter, or indulge him in the former, juſt according 'to my ambitious will. And as I had ſo little love for him, 'that any ſufferings of his could not move me to compaſſion, '(nay, on the reverſe, when he ſuffered on the account of my 'ill-humour, the power of making him ſuffer gave me delight) 'I could command myſelf to plague or pleaſe him, juſt in pro-'portion as I thought neceſſary to bring about my own purpoſe: 'for whilſt he was in agonies I was unconcerned; and conſi-'dered only to what advantage I could turn ſuch his agonies 'and tumultuous paſſions.'

We ſhall take leave of this Princeſs with a view of the concluſion of a life conducted upon ſuch principles.—'At the ap-'proach of my laſt hours, I could not avoid reflecting on my 'paſt life; and found, upon the whole, that the indulgence of 'my ambition, and the cultivating in myſelf the ſpirit of pride 'and vanity, had produced far more miſery than happineſs. 'How indeed can it be otherwiſe? when, inſtead of reſtrain-'ing, we give a looſe to paſſions, which, like a dropſy, in-'creaſe by indulgence, are too greedy to be ſatisfied, prey on our 'hearts, and raiſe in us a perplexity more painful than any miſ-'fortune that can attend or befal us. To be for ever purſuing 'what we can never attain, (which is conſtantly the caſe of 'ungovernable paſſions) is the ſtate of all others moſt to be 'deplored.—Cæſar's power, the triumph of Livia and Octa-'via, with my own approaching fate, crowded my mind with 'ſuch various and bitter reflections, as almoſt hurried me to 'diſtraction; and at laſt had I not had art enough to impoſe on 'myſelf, as I had on others, and fancy that I deſpiſed life, be-'cauſe I fixed my thoughts on other objects, Death would have appeared to me in its moſt frightful terrors. But I was ſome-

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'what flattered in preſuming I ſhould attain glory in dying with 'Anthony; and by robbing Livia and Octavia, (the one my 'rival with Anthony, the other in the univerſe) of their exul-'tation over me; and that as I could neither allure nor conquer, 'yet that I ſhould deceive the great and powerful Cæſar. Thus 'I breathed my laſt, ſadly impoſing on myſelf, and fell a wretch-'ed ſacrifice to that treachery and ambition, wherein I had ſo 'long placed my chief delight; and of whoſe fatal conſequences 'I ſhall be to all future ages, a perpetual and diſgraceful monu-'ment.'

Octavia next claims our attention.—'From my infancy,' ſhe is ſuppoſed to ſay, 'that is from the time I became capable of 'reflection, I was taught, that to contract my deſires, to com-'mand my paſſions, and to ſhare my pleaſures with others, was 'the only conduct which could promiſe me happineſs; and by 'rules like theſe was all my future life governed. My chief 'care was to keep my mind compoſed and undiſturbed; that 'in every accident which befel me, I might have power to ex-'ert my reaſon, and give my judgment its due ſcope.

'As I was very handſome, and ſiſter to the adoptive ſon of 'Julius Cæſar, I dreaded from my youth that I ſhould be ſacri-'ficed to political views, and be diſpoſed of in the ſolemn tie 'of matrimony to ſome man, whoſe ambition alone would 'lead him to take me as a pledge of friendſhip from the great 'Cæſar. My predominant paſſion was love; and the higheſt 'notion I could form of happineſs was, a private life, with a 'huſband that was agreeable to my inclinations, and capable of 'a reciprocal affection. But this opinion which I had formed 'of happineſs with ſuch a huſband, rendered me the more cau-'tious of giving way to my affections, till my approbation of 'the object made ſuch an indulgence reaſonable. I conſidered 'with myſelf, that my ſentiments of a married ſtate would not 'ſuffer me to lead a life of deceit or hypocriſy; and, there-'fore, if married at all, it was requiſite for my peace of mind, 'that I ſhould be united to a man who was the object of my 'inclinations, and whoſe diſpoſition would make an artful be-'haviour on my part totally needleſs to obtain good uſage, or 'to ſecure his eſteem. I had formed and repreſented to myſelf 'the character of the man who would pleaſe me beſt; and re-'ſolved that (unleſs conſiderations of ſtate obliged me to be a 'ſacrifice) I would live ſingle, if I found it impoſſible to meet 'with the counterpart of the picture which dwelt in my ima-'gination.'

However a counterpart was found in the perſon of Marcellus, whoſe character is amiably pourtrayed; but to give a copy of the original,

original, would employ more room than we can conveniently ſpare; for the ſame reaſon we are obliged to avoid entering upon a detail of Octavia's conjugal and maternal virtues; and ſhall conclude with only obſerving, that as the conduct of theſe Heroines was diametrically oppoſite to each other while they lived, ſo were their ſenſations at the approach of death.—'When I 'recollected my paſt life,' ſays the latter, 'I had the pleaſure of 'conſidering that notwithſtanding the many unavoidable miſ- 'fortunes I had endured, yet as I had acted uprightly, and 'without guile, I could not condemn myſelf for being the cauſe 'of any of thoſe misfortunes.—At length did I receive the re- 'ward of conſcious virtue; for, applauded by the Romans, 'valued by their Emperor, gratefully treated by my children, 'and with a mind ſteady, ſerene, and calm, I ſunk in peace, 'and reſigned my breath, without any remorſe to embitter, or 'one thought of terror to diſturb, my laſt and departing mo- 'ments.'

Anti-Lucretius, of God and Nature; a Poem. Written in Latin by the Cardinal De Polignac. *Rendered into Engliſh by the Tranſlator of* Paradiſe Loſt*. 4to. 2s. Manby.

IT is a doubt whether the Cardinal de Polignac be better known to the Stateſmen of Europe as a Politician, or to the Learned as a Poet; it is certain his talent of perſuaſion in both capacities was extraordinary, and it is ſomewhat ſurprizing, that amidſt ſuch a multiplicity of ſtate negociations, as might ſeem ſufficient to engroſs all his attention, he found leiſure for the intricate diſquiſitions of Philoſophy. As neither his Editor, nor our Tranſlator, have mentioned what firſt gave riſe to this poem, it may not be improper to mention it here. 'A ſeeming 'chance (as we are told) firſt put Polignac upon this under- 'taking. The Author, in his return from Poland, made ſome 'ſtay in Holland, where becoming acquainted with M. Bayle, 'he aſked him, which of the ſects in vogue he profeſſed? Bayle 'eluded the queſtion, by repeating ſome lines out of Lucretius; 'and being cloſer preſſed, he made no other anſwer, than that 'he was a true Proteſtant: the Abbé ſtill urging him, he an- 'ſwered with ſome emotion, "Yes, Sir, I am a true Proteſtant, "and to the utmoſt extent of the word, for I proteſt againſt all "that is ſaid or done;" which was followed by another more 'energetic repetition from Lucretius. The Abbé finding that 'learned perſon far gone in the ſyſtem of Epicuriſm, or at leaſt

* Vide Review, vol. X. p. 136.

of

'of Scepticiſm, and that theſe notions were ſeducingly advanced in his celebrated Dictionary, immediately conceived a deſign of refuting thoſe errors, and his two relegations (to the States) proved fortunate for the accompliſhment.'

Certainly nothing can be a more proper antidote than the anti-Lucretius, againſt the miſchievous doctrines of that charming Poet, but indifferent Philoſopher, here controverted by our Author. It muſt be confeſſed, Lucretius has more poetic enthuſiaſm, and more frequently amuſes his Reader with the glowing deſcriptions of a fine imagination. Our Author with greater ſeverity ſeems always in queſt of truth, and never loſes the Philoſopher in the Poet. Lucretius ſtrikes his Reader with the brilliancy of his arguments; the demonſtrations of Polignac operate more ſlowly, but then they are ſure to carry conviction. The one aims at inſtruction merely to pleaſe; the other pleaſes merely to inſtruct. In ſhort, the fictions of the diſciple of Epicurus ſeem to acquire additional graces from Poetry, while Poetry receives new graces from his antagoniſt, by being employed in the ſervice of truth.

Lucretius has long ago been tranſlated into our language. This, in ſome meaſure, implied a neceſſity for tranſlating his Opponent alſo; and the firſt book of the Anti-Lucretius in Engliſh verſe, is here ſubmitted, by the ingenious Mr. Dobſon, as a ſpecimen of his abilities for the whole. He certainly ſeems every way equal to the laborious undertaking, if we may be allowed to judge from this part of his performance now before us. He ever preſerves the ſenſe, and very ſeldom loſes the ſpirit of his original, Sometimes, however, he ſeems inferior to him in ſtrength: thus line 32 in the original,

Incute vim dictis, propriamque ulciſcere cauſam,

he tranſlates leſs energetically thus;

——————— inſpire
My Song, and vindicate thy ſovereign cauſe.

Where the Poet rapturouſly cries out,

O utinam, dum te regionibus infero ſacris—

The Tranſlator cooly ſays,

Were mine the gift, as or'e the ſacred clime—

But that the Reader may not reſt ſolely upon our judgment, it may be proper to ſelect a ſpecimen or two of the original, to which ſubjoining the Tranſlation, we ſhall leave him to determine for himſelf. The Author thus addreſſes the Atheiſt.

Si virtutis eras avidus, rectique bonique
Tam ſtriens, quid Relligio tibi ſancta nocebat?
Aſpera quippe nimis viſa eſt? Aſperrima certe

Gaudenti

Gaudenti vitiis, sed non virtutis amanti.
Ergo perfugium culpæ, solisque benignus
Perjuris ac fœdisragis, Epicure, parabas.
Solam hominum faecem poteras devotaque furcis
Devincire tibi capita, indignæque patronus
Nequitiæ tantum sceleriscque assertor haberi;
Cui tales animos virescque atque arma ministras.
Degener ille bonis etenim non ingruit horror
Quem perimis: sibi nec restingui Tartara poscunt,
Quos bene gesta satis tranquillant; ipsaque morum
Integritas, et parta quies moderamine casto
Vindicat à miserâ longæ formidine poenæ.
His procul anguicomæ strident crepitantque flagellis
Eumenides; procul his æterna incendia fumant.

Were you with ardent love of virtue fir'd,
And did you thirst for equity and truth,
Why should Religion's sacred laws offend?
She's too severe. Severe she is to those
Whom Vice delights, but not to Virtue's friends.
For Vice then, Epicurus, you contriv'd
A friendly refuge, to each miscreant kind,
Each perjur'd wretch. Hence to your banners hie
In droves, the dregs and out-cast of mankind:
Hence are you styl'd th' assertor of the base,
Patron of villains; whom you thus supply
With impious courage, and ignoble arms.
For that degenerate fear, you boast to quell,
Damps not the virtuous; whose ingenuous deeds
Becalm their minds, and chaste integrity
Wraps in soft peace, unconscious of alarms.
From these far distant, hiss and *lash* their thongs
The snake-curl'd Furies; distant far from these
Burn the relentless flames that never die.

Quid si autem invenies quod credimus, ultima cum te
Sustulerit tenebrisque perennibus obruerit nox,
Nempe Deum ultorem, quem non cognoveris antè,
Vel potius notum famâ neglexeris? Eheu!
Horresco reputans: tibi luditur alea, Quinti,
Magna nimis, Quoquò te vertas, sit tua pejor
Conditio nostrâ. Neque enim, si fallimur, hujus
Erroris dabimus poenas: sors æqua manebit
Nos omnes; uno simul involvemur inani:
Tu, si deceperis, contrà; sine fine futurus
Infelix. Cur tanta igitur discrimina tentas?

But should you find, (what merits firmest faith)
When Death shall wrap thee in her sable shade,
Should you then find with righteous vengeance arm'd
That God you knew not once, or known defied,

I ſhudder at the thought. Ah! Quintius, raſh
Th' adventure; great the hazard you explore.
Shift as you pleaſe, in every light appears
Your ſtate far worſe than ours'. What if we err?
That error no dread puniſhment attends.
One fate then all involves; we all ſhall ſink
In one vaſt uneſſential void abſorpt.
Err you? What fatal miſery enſues!
Woe infinite!—Such perils who would prove?

The Anti-Lucretius is not a refutation of Lucretius only, but of thoſe in general who ſeem to have been favourers of Atheiſm. Democritus, Ariſtotle, Epicurus, Hobbes, and Spinoſa, are confuted; and among the number of thoſe whom he has oppoſed, we are ſorry to find Newton, Locke, and Gaſſendus, whoſe opinions, concerning a Vacuum, &c. he has taken great pains to obviate; but his reaſonings on natural ſubjects, ſeem chiefly drawn from the ſtores of Des Cartes, in whoſe amuſing ſyſtems our Author had been early innitiated: and it is but natural to controvert any opinions that tend to diſcover the futility of our former reſearches into Nature. If the Tranſlator proceeds in this performance, (as we ſincerely hope he will) ſome notes added in thoſe places where the Author erroneouſly controverts the great men already mentioned, would certainly be not leſs uſeful than pleaſing to the Engliſh Reader. His Vacuums, and his Gravity of Atoms, may be given up to Lucretius, while ſtill our obligations will remain to the Author for impugning the reſt of his doctrines.

Il Padre di Famiglia, &c. di Carlo Goldoni, Avvocato Veneziano.

The Father of a Family, and Pamela. Two Comedies. By Goldoni. *Tranſlated into Engliſh, with the Italian original.* 8vo. 5s. Nourſe.

OUR countrymen are much indebted to the Tranſlator of theſe two comedies; for though Goldoni has been long admired in Italy, his comic writings were but little known in Britain.

The firſt of theſe two dramatic pieces was acted at Venice, during the carnival of 1750; and it muſt be confeſſed, that the entertainment it could not fail to afford, was of a nature very different from the ludicrous repreſentations of that favourite

vourite ſeaſon. A Venetian carnival is the triumph of folly; but ſuch regular, manly, and ſenſible pieces as the *Padre di Famiglia*, ſanctify, in ſome ſort, the other wretched amuſements of that feſtival.

Though the mode of this comedy is Italian, the genus (to talk in the language of philoſophy) is from nature; and if it does not contain many of thoſe ſtrokes of wit and humour which excite laughter, it abounds in ſound ſenſe and morals, and is a happy repreſentation of character. The Author juſtly thought the education of children a ſubject too important for pleaſantry; and though Harlequin makes his appearance in one or two of the ſcenes, it was a ſacrifice to the lower part of his audience, and not the deliberate approbation of his own judgment.

In this comedy, the unhappy effects of motherly indulgence are diſplayed in a very ſtriking and artful manner. The characters are ſtrongly marked, and beautifully contraſted: vice is puniſhed, and virtue rewarded.

'There would be,' ſays the Author, in his preface, 'an effect more advantageous than that of diverting the Public, 'drawn from my labours; could I ſhew thereby, what perſons 'are fit for the education of a family; could I make it appear 'to mothers, that they ought not to be ſo exceſſively fond of 'their children; could I make theſe ſenſible of their duty, without abuſing the affection of their parents; and, in fine, could 'I demonſtrate, that young ladies may derive every accompliſhment from domeſtic education. Theſe were my notions 'when I was writing the preſent comedy, in which I have had 'conſtant attention to deſcribe what I had before obſerved to 'this purpoſe, in the tranſactions of the world; which is that 'very fruitful book from whence I take the matter that gives 'ſolidity to my inventions.'—

Although this comedy, as well as Pamela, conſiſts only of three acts, yet as each of theſe is ſplit into a great multiplicity of ſcenes, both of them might have been divided into the cuſtomary number of acts, if the Author had thought that number eſſential to the drama. If a comedy is ſufficiently long, to furniſh out an evening's entertainment, the number of acts is of no great conſequence.

Were we diſpoſed to criticiſe upon a play which had afforded us ſo much real pleaſure, as the *Padre de Famiglia*, we ſhould ſay, that it languiſhes in the 22d, 23d, 24th, and 25th ſcenes of the laſt act.

Where

Where Pamela was firſt introduced upon the ſtage, we are not informed; but as it is addreſſed to the late Governor of Leghorn, the Marquis of Ginori, a Florentine Nobleman, we have ſome reaſon to think, that it was firſt acted in the great Duke's dominions.

In this play the characters are Engliſh, and the plot is extracted from Mr. Richardſon's well known romance; with this addition, that Pamela, in the Italian Author, is diſcovered to be the daughter of a rebel Scotch nobleman, who, to ſcreen himſelf from the law, is ſuppoſed to have fled to ſome of the mountainous parts of England, where he ſupported his family by the ſweat of his brow.

'The reward of virtue,' ſays our comic Poet, 'is the ob-'ject of the Engliſh Author; ſuch a deſign I was greatly pleaſed 'with; but I would not have the honour of a family ſacrificed 'to the merit of virtue.—It is true, in London, ſome men of 'family make no difficulty of marrying the meaneſt plebeian, 'neither is there any law there, that forbids them: but it is no 'leſs true, that no one will like therefore, that his ſon, brother, 'or near relation, ſhould marry a low woman, rather than one 'of his own rank, though the firſt may be handſomer, or *more 'virtuous than the laſt.* The Romance-writer himſelf arms 'with indignation the ſiſter of the enamoured nobleman, upon 'the ſuſpicion that he may condeſcend to marry a ſervant.— 'The Engliſh Author ought therefore, in my opinion, either 'not to have raiſed any difficulty upon ſuch a circumſtance, or 'to have ſolved it in a manner more becoming the honour of 'his country.'

How far our Author's ſentiments upon this head are juſt, we ſhall not enquire; but this we may be allowed to obſerve, that Goldoni has improved upon Richardſon; for while Pamela was unacquainted with her own deſcent, her virtue, in reſiſting every allurement offered her by her lover, was no leſs meritorious than if her father had been a poor labouring countryman. For our own parts, we never had that very high opinion of Pamela's virtue, which many of Mr. Richardſon's female partizans entertained. It is plain ſhe had addreſs enough to ſee, that if ſhe perſiſted in her denial, Mr. B's love for her would triumph over the pride of family.

In this piece the paſſion of love is painted with no leſs truth than delicacy. All the ſpeakers ſeem to ſay juſt what they ſhould ſay, and no more; or, in other words, the turn of the expreſſion, as well as of the thought, is accommodated to the character of each perſonage; while the ſtory is ſtill going on, and goes on juſt as it ought to do. Accordingly, we are neither to be ſur-

prized, that its exhibition was attended with great ſucceſs, not that ſome objected to its ſerious, moral, and pathetic turn. 'Such critics as theſe,' ſays Goldoni, 'would always have comedy either ridiculous, or ſatyrical, and never miſtreſs of noble ſentiments; as if virtue was only to be repreſented among heroes, and conſidered in that hyperbolical view in which the tragic heroes themſelves are placed. The human mind more readily and more ſenſibly feels the appearance of thoſe occurrences to which it has been, or may become ſubject; and it will always be a commendable undertaking, if in the comic ſcenes, by moving the paſſions of the audience, there is an attempt either to correct or encourage them, as they are variouſly enclined either to vice or virtue.'

It muſt not, however, be diſſembled, that as comedy propoſes, for the end of its repreſentation, *the ſenſation of pleaſure ariſing from a view of the truth of characters, more eſpecially their ſpecific differences*; ſo a little more gaiety, and leſs pathos; more humour, and leſs argumentation, would not have rendered this foreign production leſs palatable to a judicious critic.

Both comedies are elegant in point of language: we ſpeak of the original Italian. As to the verſion, it is ſufficient to obſerve, that it is faithful, and not altogether wanting in ſpirit.

A Journal of eight Days Journey from Portſmouth to Kingſton upon Thames; through Southampton, Wiltſhire, &c: With miſcellaneous Thoughts, moral and religious; in ſixty-four Letters: Addreſſed to two Ladies of the Partie. To which is added, an Eſſay on Tea; conſidered as pernicious to Health, obſtructing Induſtry, and impoveriſhing the Nation: with an Account of its Growth, and great Conſumption in theſe Kingdoms. With ſeveral political Reflections; and Thoughts on Public Love. In thirty-two Letters to two Ladies. By Mr. H*****. The ſecond Edition corrected and enlarged*. 8vo. 2 vols. 10s. Henderſon.

MR. Hanway, who has already obliged the public with an account of his Travels into diſtant parts of the world, here preſents the Reader with the reſult of his Travels nearer home. This Journal was, perhaps, at firſt deſigned for the amuſement of his friends, and by their too partial applauſe he might have been tempted to ſend it into the world; however,

* The firſt edition was printed about a year ago, and *preſented* by the Author to his friends only, but not *ſold*.

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he can loſe little reputation tho' he ſhould not ſucceed in an attempt of ſuch a nature as this; eſpecially as he has already ſhewn himſelf equal to ſubjects and undertakings that require much greater abilities. Novelty of thought, and elegance of expreſſion, are what we chiefly require, in treating on topics with which the public are already acquainted: but the art of placing trite materials in new and ſtriking lights, cannot be reckoned among the excellencies of this Gentleman; who generally enforces his opinions by arguments rather obvious than new, and that convey more conviction than pleaſure to the Reader.

The deſcription of the places through which this Journey of eight days was performed, takes up but a very little part of this performance. The Reader will find, that in his preſent Travels, the Author's *mental* are much more frequent than his *perſonal* excurſions; as, through the whole, he takes every opportunity (and ſometimes forces one) to indulge his propenſity to moralizing. In this capacity, indeed, he ſhews great goodneſs of heart, and an earneſt concern for the welfare of his country. However, tho' his opinions are generally true, and his regard for virtue ſeems very ſincere, yet theſe alone are not, at this day, ſufficient to defend the cauſe of truth; ſtile, elegance, and all the allurements of good writing, muſt be called in aid: eſpecially if the age be in reality, as it is repreſented by this Author, averſe to every thing that *but ſeems* to be ſerious.

In theſe *Letters*, which may with more propriety be ſtiled *Eſſays*, or *Meditations*, the Author informs the two Ladies of his *Partie*, concerning every thing that happened upon the Journey, (tho' it is to be ſuppoſed, they wanted no information in that reſpect) and on every occurrence he expatiates, and indulges in reflection. The appearance of an inn on the road, ſuggeſts to our Philoſopher an eulogium on temperance; the confuſion of a diſappointed Landlady gives riſe to a Letter on Reſentment; and the view of a company of ſoldiers furniſhes out materials for an Eſſay on War. But he ſeems to reſerve his powers till he comes to treat of TEA, againſt which he inveighs, through almoſt the whole ſecond volume; aſſuming the Phyſician, Philoſopher, and Politician. To this plant he aſcribes the ſcurvy, weakneſs of nerves, low ſpirits, laſſitudes, melancholy, 'and twenty different diſorders, which, in ſpite 'of the faculty, have yet no names, except the general one of 'nervous complaints.' Nay, (as the Author exclaims) our very nurſes drink Tea! and, what is more deplorable ſtill, they drink *run* Tea, that coſts not above three or four ſhillings a pound! The Ladies ſpoil their teeth, and complexions, and the men have loſt their ſtature and comelineſs, by the uſe of this pernicious drug; our time is conſumed in drinking it; our

morals injured by the luxuries it induces; our fortunes impaired in procuring it; and the ballance of trade turned againſt us by its importation. To remedy theſe evils, the Author, tho' he allows us to continue the uſe of our porcelane cups, and our ſipping, would ſubſtitute in the place of tea, ſeveral very harmleſs herbs of our own growth, ſuch as ground-ivy, penny-royal, horehound, trefoil, ſorrel, not forgetting cowſlip flowers, whoſe wine, he tells us, is a powerful ſoporific; and, truly, if this be the caſe, the infuſion might have ſome good effects at many a tea-table.

'It is the curſe of this nation, (exclaims our Author) that 'the labourer and mechanic will ape the Lord; and therefore 'I can diſcover no way of aboliſhing the uſe of tea, unleſs it 'be done by the irreſiſtible force of *example*. It is an epidemical diſeaſe; if any ſeeds of it remain, it will engender an 'univerſal infection. To what a height of folly muſt a nation 'be arrived, when the common people are not ſatisfied with 'wholeſome food at home, but muſt go to the remoteſt regions 'to pleaſe a vicious palate! There is a certain lane near Richmond, where beggars are often ſeen, in the ſummer ſeaſon, 'drinking their tea. You may ſee labourers who are mending 'the roads drinking their tea; it is even drank in cinder-carts; 'and what is not leſs abſurd, ſold out in cups to haymakers. 'He who ſhould be able to drive three Frenchmen before him, 'or ſhe who might be a breeder of ſuch a race of men, are to 'be ſeen ſipping their Tea!

"Was it the breed of ſuch as theſe,
"That quell'd the proud Hyſperides?

'Were they the ſons of Tea-ſippers who won the fields of Creſſy and Agincourt, or dyed the Danube's ſtreams with Gallic 'blood? What will be the end of ſuch effeminate cuſtoms extended to thoſe perſons, who muſt get their bread by the labours of the field!

'From the pride of imitating her betters, and the habit of 'drinking this deluding infuſion, Nurſes in general, in this part 'of the iſland, contract a paſſion for this bitter draught, which 'bears down all the duties of humanity before it! Nor are 'theſe alone diſtempered with this canine appetite for Tea; 'you know it to be almoſt literally true in many inſtances; every Miſtreſs of a Family knows it to be true, of their ſervants 'in general, eſpecially the females, who demand your ſubmiſſion to this execrable cuſtom; and you ſubmit, as if the evil 'was irremediable; nay, your ſervants ſervants, down to the 'very beggars, will not be ſatisfied unleſs they conſume the 'produce of the remote country of China. They conſider it 'as their Magna Charta, and will die by the ſword, or famine,

'rather than not follow the example of their Miſtreſſes. What 'would you ſay, if they ſhould take it into their heads, not to 'work without an allowance of French wine? This would 'not be thought a more extravagant demand now, than Tea 'was eſteemed forty years ago. Conſider the tendency of theſe 'pernicious and abſurd cuſtoms!

'Look into all the cellars in London, you will find men or 'women ſipping their Tea in the morning or afternoon, and 'very often both morning and afternoon: thoſe will have Tea 'who have not Bread. I once took a ramble for two months, 'attended only by a ſervant: I ſtrolled far into ſeveral parts of 'England, and when I was tired of riding, I walked, and with as 'much decency as I could, often viſited little huts, to ſee how 'the people lived. I ſtill found the ſame game was playing, 'and miſery itſelf had no power to baniſh Tea, which had fre-'quently introduced that miſery. I have been told, that in 'ſome places, where the people are ſo poor, that no one fami-'ly poſſeſſes all the neceſſary apparatus for Tea, they carry them 'to each others houſes, to the diſtance of a mile or two, and 'club materials for this fantaſtic amuſement.

'What a wild infatuation is this! it took its riſe from ex-'ample; by example it is ſupported; and example alone can 'aboliſh the uſe of it. The ſuppreſſion of this dangerous cuſ-'tom depends entirely on the example of Ladies of rank in this 'country. Tea will certainly be acknowleged a bad thing as 'ſoon as you leave off drinking it. No Lady's woman, or 'Gentlewoman's chamber-maid, will drink a liquor which her 'Miſtreſs no longer uſes. Some indeed have reſolution enough 'in their own houſes, to confine the uſe of Tea to their own 'table, but their number is ſo extremely ſmall, amidſt a numer-'ous acquaintance, I know only of Mrs. T****, whoſe name 'ought to be written out in letters of gold.'

Thus we ſee how fortunate ſome folks are. Mrs. T. is praiſ-ed for confining luxury to her own table: ſhe earns fame, and ſaves ſomething in domeſtic expences into the bargain! But to be as much in earneſt as Mr. Hanway himſelf ſeems to be,—this Getleman appears more deſirous of ſaying every thing that may be ſaid on every ſubject, than of only ſelecting all that can be ſaid to the purpoſe; and by endeavouring to obviate every doubt that might ſtill remain with his Reader, he often uſes a redundancy of argument, that rather ſerves to tire than convince us.

When he treats of Tea in his aſſumed medical capacity, he ſpeaks by no means like an adept in phyſic: indeed it is not to be expected, that every Gentleman can be acquainted with a ſcience that requires ſo much time and induſtry in the acquiſition, and

therefore we may forgive his errors without pointing them out; but if to be unacquainted with the medical art, indicates no want of general knowlege, yet, perhaps, it argues ſome want of prudence, to ſpeak of ſubjects to which our acquirements are not adequate.

Yet after all, why ſo violent an out-cry againſt this devoted article of modern luxury? Every nation that is rich hath had, and will have, its favourite luxuries. Abridge the people in one, they generally run into another; and the Reader may judge which will be moſt conducive to either mental or bodily health: the watery beverage of a modern fine Lady, or the ſtrong beer, and ſtronger waters of her great-grandmother?

The Complete Diſtiller. Containing, I. *The Method of performing the various Proceſſes of Diſtillation, with Deſcriptions of the ſeveral Inſtruments; the whole Doctrine of Fermentation; the Manner of drawing Spirits from Malt, Raiſins, Moloſſes, Sugar, &c. and of rectifying them: with Inſtructions for imitating, to the greateſt Perfection, both the Colour and Flavour of French Brandies.* II. *The Manner of Diſtilling all Kinds of Simple Waters from Plants, Flowers, &c.* III. *The Method of making all the Compound Waters and rich Cordials, ſo largely imported from France and Italy; as likewiſe all thoſe now made in Great-Britain. To which are added, accurate Deſcriptions of the ſeveral Drugs, Plants, Flowers, Fruits, &c. uſed by Diſtillers; and Inſtructions for chuſing the beſt of each Kind. The whole delivered in the plaineſt Manner, for the Uſe both of Diſtillers and private Families. By* A. Cooper, Diſtiller. 8vo. 4s. Vaillant.

IT is a general complaint, and indeed too often well founded, that books treating on the practical branches of ſcience, are defective. Nor will this appear ſurprizing, if we conſider, that treatiſes of this kind are generally written either by perſons converſant with the theory, without practice, or with the practice without the theory. If by the former, the *theoritical* parts are delivered in a very ample and ſcientifical manner, but the *practice* ſhort, ſuperficial, and often erroneous. On the contrary, when the Author is a mere practitioner, the theory is neglected; and (being little ſolicitous about the language or method) the practice itſelf is delivered in ſuch a manner, that very little advantage can be derived from it.

Bitt

But tho' this charge may be too often well founded, yet it is not always ſo; there are many exceptions, among which we may venture to place this Complete Diſtiller; the theory being ſcientifically laid down, and the practice full, and delivered in a conſpicuous manner.

The treatiſe is divided into three parts; in the firſt, the diſtillation of vinous Spirits is conſidered; in the ſecond the diſtillation of Simple Waters, or thoſe drawn from plants, without the aſſiſtance of vinous Spirits; and in the third, the manner of making Compound Waters and Cordials.

In the firſt part the nature of vinous Spirits is traced from their origin, namely, from Fermentation; which Mr. Cooper has conſidered in its different branches, ſhewn its principles, delivered all the rules neceſſary for conducting that uſeful operation, and pointed out methods whereby it might be carried to greater perfection than it is at preſent.

Previous to the Author's delivering any new proceſs, he endeavours to ſhew the reaſons on which it is founded, in order to convince the artiſt, that if he fails, it muſt be entirely from his own negligence. Thus, with regard to the manner of imitating the flavour, colour, and proof of French Brandy, after having explained the methods commonly uſed by Diſtillers, he ſhews the reaſons on which the true proceſſes are founded, and deſcribes the manner of performing them.

'The only method of imitating French Brandies to perfection,' ſays the Author, 'is by an eſſential oil of wine, this 'being the very thing that gives the French Brandies their fla-'vour. It muſt, however, be remembered, that in order to 'uſe even this ingredient to advantage, a pure taſteleſs ſpirit 'muſt be procured; for it is ridiculous to expect, that this eſ-'ſential oil ſhould be able to give the agreeable flavour of French 'Brandies to our fulſome malt ſpirit, already loaded with its 'own nauſeous oil, or ſtrongly impregnated with a lixivious 'taſte from the alkaline ſalts uſed in the rectification.'

Mr. Cooper then proceeds to ſhew the method of extracting this eſſential oil, and of mixing it with the ſpirit, in order to imitate the flavour of French Brandy; after which he ſhews the manner of imitating the proof and ſoftneſs. With regard to the colour, he obſerves, that a piece of French Brandy which has gained by age a great degree of ſoftneſs, is, at the ſame time, obſerved to have acquired a yellowiſh brown colour; and hence our Diſtillers have endeavoured to imitate this colour in ſuch ſpirits as are intended to paſs for French Brandy. 'But in 'order to do this, it is neceſſary to know from whence the French

'Brandies themſelves acquire their colour; for till we have 'made this diſcovery it will be in vain to attempt an imitation; 'becauſe if we ſhould be able to imitate exactly the colour, 'which is, indeed, no difficult taſk, the ſpirit will not ſtand 'the teſt of different experiments, unleſs the colour in both be 'produced from the ſame ingredient.

'This being undeniably the caſe, let us try if we cannot diſ-'cover this mighty ſecret; the ingredient from whence the 'French Brandy acquires its colour.

'We have already obſerved, that this colour is only found 'in ſuch Brandies as have acquired a mellow ripeneſs by age; 'it is therefore not given it by the Diſtiller, but has gained it 'by lying long in the caſk. Conſequently the ingredient from 'whence this colour is extracted is no other than the wood of 'the caſk, and the Brandy is in reality become a dilute tincture 'of oak.

'The common experiment uſed to prove the genuineneſs of 'French Brandy, proves that this opinion is well founded. 'The experiment is this: they pour into a glaſs of Brandy a 'few drops of a ſolution of calcined vitriol of iron, in a diluted 'ſpirit of ſulphur, or any other mineral acid, and the whole 'turns of a blue colour; in the ſame manner as we make ink 'of a tincture of galls and vitriol.'

Having thus diſcovered the true ingredient from whence the French Brandy obtains its colour, the Author proceeds to ſhew the method of extracting a tincture from oak, and mixing it with the ſpirit, in order to give it the colour deſired.

In this manner the Author has conducted his proceſſes; and there is reaſon to believe, if his hints are put in practice, that the art of Diſtillation will receive conſiderable improvements.

But the third part of this treatiſe will be generally reckoned the moſt valuable, Mr. Cooper having there given Recipes for making not only all the Engliſh Compound Waters and Cordials, but alſo thoſe which are imported, at ſuch a prodigious expence, from France and Italy; and plainly ſhewn, that they may be made to as great perfection in England as in foreign countries, by which means they may be ſold prodigiouſly cheaper, and at the ſame time the money circulated in our own iſland. But as this part conſiſts entirely of Recipes, it will be improper for us to make any extract, and therefore we muſt refer the Reader to the treatiſe itſelf; only obſerving, that all the ingredients mentioned in the ſeveral Recipes, are accurately deſcribed, and proper directions given for chuſing the beſt of each kind.

FO-

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

From our Correſpondent at Paris.

GENTLEMEN,

'NOthing, at preſent, more engages the attention of all 'ranks here, than the account, publiſhed by authority, 'of DAMIEN's affair. The work is thus entitled;'

"*Pieces Originales et Procedures du Procés fait a Robert-François D'Amien's, &c.* Original Acts and Proceedings on "the Trial of Robert-Francis D'Amien's, &c. 4 vols. "12mo. The firſt volume contains, beſides the Introduc- "tion, 283 pages; ſecond, 528; third, 451; fourth, "552. Paris. Printed by Authority, for Peter-William "Simon, Printer to the Parliament of Paris, 1757."

'The above-mentioned four volumes contain a thorough 'and exact account of this moſt important Trial, which 'has been at length permitted to be printed, for the ſatisfaction 'of the public. But as this Trial appears in ſo voluminous a 'form, from the whole of the judicial acts and procedures be- 'ing therein comprehended, as might be tedious to run through, 'it may not unreaſonably be pronounced, that a compendium, 'or abſtract, of the whole of that tranſaction, and of the crimi- 'nal's life, in which nothing material ſhould be omitted, would 'be equally ſufficient to gratify the curioſity of your Readers. 'I am, Gentlemen!

'Your moſt humble ſervant,

X*****.

ROBERT-Francis Damiens was born January 9, 1715, in a Hamlet of Artois called Tieuloy, about a league and a half from St. Pol. His father's name was Peter-Joſeph Damiens, a plain laboring man. His mother's maiden name was Guillemant. The marriage of this couple produced ten children, all of whom died before the year 1753, except four, viz. Anthony-Joſeph Damiens, wool-comber, who married and ſettled at St. Omers; Robert-Francis Damiens, the criminal; Lewis Damiens, a ſervant at Paris; and a girl called Mary-Catherine, who married Charles Collet, a carpenter of St. Omers.

Robert-Francis Damiens having loſt his mother, was placed out to ſervice, at one Petit's in the ſaid village of Tieuloy; where he ſtaid but a ſhort time. His great-uncle by the mother's ſide, called James-Lewis Guillemant, who kept a public-houſe at Bethune, was ſo kind as to take charge of him. He might

might then be about ſixteen. From his tendereſt youth he had always ſhewed himſelf incorrigible, and was nick-named in the country, for his diabolical temper, *Robert the Devil.*

His uncle Guillemant had him taught reading and writing; but his diſregard to his learning engaged his uncle to put him prentice to one Beauvante, a lockſmith, in Bethune. There he ſtaid but a ſhort time, and liſting himſelf for a ſoldier, his uncle had the charity to procure his diſcharge for 400 livres*.

This new mark of his uncle's goodneſs did not render Damiens more tractable. He ſoon after left his uncle, who never ſaw him afterwards, and who died in 1747.

After leaving Bethune, Damiens came to Arras. There, as he ſaid, he ſtaid ſometime, at the abby of St. Vaſt, to learn cookery. However, he certainly towards the year 1733, entered into the ſervice of Monſ. Dubas, a Swiſs Officer, with whom he made a campaign at the ſiege of Philipſburgh. From thence he paſſed directly into the ſervice of the Count of Raymond, with whom he went a journey to Bavaria; and on his return, not caring to go with the Count to his eſtate in Angoulême, he entered ſervant to the Refectory of the Jeſuit's college of Lewis-le-grand at Paris, on the recommendation of John-Francis Neveu, a very diſtant relation of his, at that time ſteward of the college. He ſtaid there about fifteen months; at the end of which, for non-ſubmiſſion to a puniſhment he had incurred, he was turned off. After this he went into ſeveral places, for the ſpace of about a year, when he preſented himſelf to the college, and deſired to be taken in again. He was ſo, and obtained the permiſſion of ſerving ſome particular chambers of boarders.

He ſtaid about fourteen or fifteen months in this place, during which time it was remarked that he ſpoke little, was rather paſſionate, and very much diſpoſed to be refractory towards his ſuperiors.

Towards the year 1738 he got acquainted with Elizabeth Molerienne, a native of Metz, then in the ſervice of the Counteſs of Cruſol, at Paris. This woman he married, about the beginning of the year 1739, and had by her two children, the one a boy, who died young; the other a girl called Mary-Elizabeth, who was brought up by her mother, and latterly gained her livelyhood by coloring images.

This marriage obliged Damiens to quit his ſervice at the college, when he took a lodging for his wife in St. Stephen's cloiſ-

* About 16*l.*

ters,

ters, where ſhe lived till September 1756; and then ſhe went into ſervice, as a cook. As to her husband, he ran through a number of ſervices. His natural inconſtancy, and violence of temper, occaſioned theſe frequent changes. It would be needleſs to particularize all the places in which he lived. It is enough to obſerve, that he ſucceſſively ſerved maſters of all ranks and conditions. According to ſundry depoſitions on his trial, it appears, that he could, if he pleaſed, be a good ſervant; that he was ſhy of the company of his comrades, full of vanity, deſirous of ſignalizing himſelf; a keen news-monger, of a ſeditious turn, yet generally ſpeaking preſerved his character for taciturnity, except when he gave way to his itch of commenting upon the public news; for this we have teſtimony of one Deſvaux, (vol. II. page 264.) who repreſents him as a great prater on that ſubject. He would often talk to himſelf, and mutter inwardly; was obſtinate in the purſuit of whatever he had projected, and daring in the execution of it; impudent; addicted to lying; ſenſible himſelf of the effervescence of his blood, and occaſionally ſeeking to calm it. His figure was ſomething anſwerable to his character: he was of a talliſh ſtature, his face ſomewhat long, his look bold and piercing, his noſe rather hooked like a parrot's bill, or aquiline, than what is underſtood by the Roman noſe; his mouth ſunk in, and had contracted a quivering motion, from his habit of talking to himſelf.

July 4, 1756, Damiens, under the name of Flamand, went into ſervice to one Monſ. Michel, a Ruſſian Merchant, then at Paris. On the 6th of the ſaid month, Mr. Michel, on going out about his affairs, left Damiens at his lodgings, with orders to wait for him; but on his return, he found that his new ſervant was gone. This created a ſuſpicion, which was ſoon confirmed by miſſing two hundred and fifty Louis d'ores. Mr. Michel immediately concluding that the robbery muſt have been committed by his ſervant, made his complaint to the Commiſſary Laurencin; but, on the evening of the day of the robbery, Damiens took poſt from Paris to Arras; where reſting ſome hours at an inn, he repaired to the village of Hermanville; lay there two nights, and from thence he went to two of his aunts, who were married to Albert and Lewis Platel.

July 8, he returned to Arras, and preſented a petition againſt his relations by his mother's ſide, with whom he had ſome diſputes about family concerns. The evening of the ſame day he left Arras again, juſt touched at Bethune, and the 9th came to Coeurjoyeux near St. Omers.

July 10, he came early in the morning to St. Omers, and went to enquire for his brother, Joſeph-Anthony Damiens, with

with whom he deſigned to lodge; but not finding the houſe commodious, or well enough furniſhed, he went to his ſiſter Collet's, where he fixed his abode.

The 11th he went to Arcq near St. Omers, where his father was porter to the Provoſtſhip dependent on the abbey of St. Berrin, and returned the ſame day to St. Omers. The 12th and 13th he employed himſelf in making different purchaſes: he gave his ſiſter fifty-four livres (about two guineas) towards keeping a better table. To his brother Joſeph-Anthony he gave three hundred livres, to buy him wool, for carrying on his trade. The 14th, Joſeph-Anthony received from Paris a letter from his brother Lewis, acquainting him with the robbery committed on Mr. Michel, by their brother Robert-Francis Damiens, and of the purſuits of juſtice on this account.

Joſeph-Anthony, without delay, appriſed Damiens of this news; at which he fell into the greateſt fury, and it was with difficulty that they could calm it;—he grew ſick, and, doubtleſs through a fit of deſpair, he ſwallowed a conſiderable over-doſe of an emetic, which had a moſt violent effect, but which however was got over, by proper remedies.

It was then that Joſeph-Anthony, who has the character of being an honeſt man, exhorted him to reſtore what he had taken from his late Maſter; and tried to prevail on him to put himſelf under the direction of the Sieur Fenès, a Curate of St. Omers. To this, Damiens never would conſent; and laughed both at his brother's devotion, and at the offer of a ſpiritual guide.

During his ſtay at St. Omers he converſed only with his own family; went rarely to maſs on Sundays and Holidays, and openly ridiculed his brothers and ſiſter, for ſtaying too long, according to his notions, at church.

Being thoroughly recovered, and expreſſing a deſire to go to Dunkirk, his brother Anthony, and ſiſter Collet, were kind enough to accompany him thither, to watch him, leſt he ſhould do himſelf any miſchief. They arrived at Dunkirk, on the 22d of July, and took up their reſidence with a relation of the widow Collet's.—The 24th, Joſeph-Anthony returned to St. Omers, to fetch a coat that had been bought by Damiens, who ſtaid behind with his ſiſter; and both together went to Fort Mardyke, where they paſſed the day with the ſluice-keeper. The next day they returned to Dunkirk; and on the 26th Joſeph-Anthony returned to St. Omers, with an air of great confuſion and perplexity, and acquainted Damiens, that a warrant was certainly come from Paris to take him up. On this

the

the two brothers went off in a hurry, without taking leave of their landlord, and took the road of St. Venant; from whence, on the 27th, Joſeph-Anthony returned to St. Omers, for the cloaths Damiens had left there, and rejoined him on the 31ſt.

On the firſt of Auguſt the two brothers ſeparated; and Damiens ſtopped at an inn in Zutnoland, juſt by Poperingue. Here he went by his mother's name; and ſtaid at this inn till the 9th, during which time he had himſelf bled. His landlady going by chance into his room, found him weltering in his blood, though he did not ſeem in a ſwoon. He told her his bandage had looſed of itſelf (tho' it was afterwards judged to be of his own doing) and it was immediately taken care of. The reſt of the time he paſſed partly in bed, where he lay late, and partly at cards with a grenadier in the Queen of Hungary' troops, called Morel.

The 9th of Auguſt he went to Poperingue; ſtaid four days at the Pelican; and then changed that lodging for another at Petronilla Hameau's, a Mercer's, where he lay for about fifteen days, in the ſame room with one Playouſt, a ſtocking-frame weaver. It was to this Playouſt that he made uſe of theſe words. *If I return to France——Yes, I will return thither; I ſhall die there, and the greateſt man of the earth ſhall die alſo; I will do ſomething to be talked of.* Words that characterize the man perfectly.

September 10, a Town-beadle having acquainted Damiens, that the Magiſtrate wanted to ſpeak with him, he left Poperingue that afternoon; and on the 12th he came to Coeurjoyeux, near St. Omers. From thence he went to Arcq, to ſee his father, who ſent for his ſon Joſeph-Anthony, and his daughter Collet: with whom Damiens had a diſpute, wanting to take back about fourteen Lewidores he had put into his ſiſter's hands, and three hundred livres from Joſeph Anthony: but as they, by the advice of the Curate Fenès before-mentioned, had actually taken effectual meaſures to reſtore this money to Mr. Michel, they would not return it to him.

Nothing happened to Damiens worth notice, till the 3d of December 1756, when, at Arras, he ended his diſputes with his family, and received about 400 livres.

From the 9th to the 20th he paſſed his time at a public-houſe in Arras, gaming and drinking, with his uſual taciturnity, ſcarce ever entering into converſation. The 20th he was let blood at his lodgings, deſiring the Surgeon to make a large orifice; and for ſeveral days he took opium. The 21ſt he went to a relation's at Faleſque near Arras, and talked like a madman, ſaying, *that the kingdom, that his wife and daughter were ruined.*

ruined. He ſtaid at Faleſque till the 23d. The 25th he left his lodging at Saquet's, and came to the French Arms, an inn from which the ſtages ſet out for Paris, and took a place in the coach, for which he was booked under the name of Breval.—The 28th he ſet out in the coach for Paris, with three paſſengers, with whom it did not appear that he had the leaſt connexion.—The 31ſt he arrived at St. Martin's Bar, where he took a hackney-coach, and had the civility to ſet down a young Gentleman, one of the paſſengers, at a houſe to which he was recommended. At three in the afternoon he went to a public-houſe in Beaubourg-ſtreet, where he waited for his brother Lewis Damiens, then a ſervant in a family in Simon-le-franc-ſtreet. This brother ſoon came, and was greatly ſurprized to ſee him; Damiens having taken care that he ſhould not know beforehand who it was that had ſent for him.

Lewis reproached him with his imprudence in returning to Paris, after the robbery he had committed, of which complaint had been made to Juſtice. Damiens aſſured him he ſhould not ſtay long, and deſired him to recommend to him ſome inn to lodge at. This his brother declining, he enquired of him where his wife was; and was told ſhe was in a cook's place, at Madam Ripandelly's in St. Nicholas church-yard-ſtreet.

After this converſation the two brothers parted. Damiens went at five to Madam Ripandelly's. The Lady's woman, Macé, opened the door to him, and knew him again, having formerly boarded with his wife, before Damiens went out of town. She told him his wife was gone out, but that he might wait her return in the kitchen; and accordingly he did ſo. When his wife came in, ſhe was ſurprized to ſee him. He told her, he ſhould not ſtay long, but would return to Artois; upon which ſhe determined to let him lie in her chamber, without acquainting her miſtreſs.

The next day, being the firſt of the new year 1757, the daughter of Damiens being apprized of her father's arrival, came about eleven o'clock and found him yet in bed. The next day, January the 2d, ſhe returned with a woman (a friend of her mother's) called Wattebled, a Sempſtreſs; and they both reproached Damiens with his return, which expoſed him to be taken up for his robbery: Wattebled eſpecially made him a very ſenſible exhortation upon this ſubject. On the evening, towards ſeven o'clock, Damiens and his wife went from Madam Ripandelly's, to ſee their daughter and Wattebled ſafe home, who both lodged at St. Stephen's. On the way they ſtopped at a beer-houſe, in St. Martin's-ſtreet, near St. Mederick. There theſe women reiterated their requeſt to him, to

leave

leave Paris inſtantly. He promiſed he would, and bid Watteau an eternal farewel.

The next day, towards eight o'clock in the evening, Damiens left the houſe of Madam Ripandelly, in company with his wife and daughter, who ſaw him as far as St. Martin's ſtreet, where he took his leave of them, after aſſuring them, that he would return inſtantly into his own country.

It is hard to aſcertain what Damiens did between half an hour paſt eight in the evening, when he left his wife, to eleven, when he came to the carriage-office for Verſailles, whom he hired a chaiſe, and arrived at Verſailles about three in the morning of the 4th of January.—He ſtaid at the poſt-office there till ſeven; and after having drank ſome ratafia with the coachman, and the waiter at the poſt-office, for which he paid very freely, he ſlept ſoundly for about two hours. As ſoon as he waked, he deſired this waiter to direct him to an inn; and upon his recommending Fortier in Sartory-ſtreet, he took up his lodging there. As he had no bundle, Mrs. Fortier required of him, to give her earneſt for his expences; which he did. After drinking a glaſs of wine, he went to bed, and lay till about two in the afternoon; then having put on his cloaths, he went out of the inn, and it does not clearly appear how he diſpoſed of himſelf juſt afterwards. He pretended, that he had ſpent part of his time in the park, the courts, and in drinking at a public-houſe in the ſtreet of the Recollects: but whatever enquiry could be made as to this matter, there was no arriving at any certainty.

The ſame day, Tueſday the 4th, he returned to his inn at Fortier's, and flew into a rage at his coming in, ſaying, *there is no diſpatching of buſineſs at that curſed Verſailles*; and that the King was going again to Trianon till the next Saturday. Afterwards he called for a fowl, but took up with ſome mutton that was offered him; and after eating a bit, went to bed.

January the 5th, 1757, the fatal day! Mrs. Fortier going up by chance into his room, about eleven o'clock, he deſired her to ſend for a Surgeon to bleed him; it was then exceeding cold weather, and ſhe believing he was jeſting with her, anſwered him on the ſame footing. He has ſince, in his interrogatories before the Court, when confronted with the ſaid Fortier, inſiſted, *that if he had been bled, as he deſired, he had not committed that crime.*

However that may be, having dreſſed himſelf about two o'clock, he left Fortier's inn. From four o'clock he was ſeen to ſaunter about the courts of the caſtle; which he owns. One of

the guards of the gate declared, that being on duty under the archway that leads to the apartment of the Princeſſes, he ſaw a perſon, whom he ſince knew to be Damiens: that this perſon was accoſted by another, unknown, a thin man, about five feet high; who ſaid to Damiens, as he came up to him, *Well?* To which Damiens anſwered, *Well! I am waiting.* Damiens pretends, that this guard of the gate has inverted the order of the dialogue, for it was himſelf who ſaid *Well*; and that it was the other who anſwered, *Well, I am waiting.* Damiens, being preſſed to declare who this perſon was, pretended that it was one who was ſolliciting permiſſion to make a public ſhew of a machine. Perquiſitions were made thereon, but this man, who is known, has no reſemblance to the deſcription furniſhed by the guard of the gate, being above five feet and a half high, and of a thick make. Damiens, in the whole courſe of his examination, perſiſted in what he had declared to this purport*.

On the afternoon of the ſame day, Wedneſday the 5th of January, the King came from Trianon, to ſee the Princeſſes; and deſigning to go back thither, left their apartment about three quarters after five, accompanied by his whole Court, and by the Dauphin. Damiens had hid himſelf in a little hollow, at the bottom of the ſtairs, near the archway. At the inſtant that the King was ſtepping into the coach, leaning on the Count of Brionne, the grand Equerry, and the Marquis of Beringhen, Firſt Equerry, the coach door being open, the aſſaſſin ruſhed into the midſt of the crowd of Courtiers, and, in his way, ran againſt the Dauphin, whom he joſtled, as likewiſe the Duke of Ayen, Captain of the Guards-du-corps upon duty; then laying violent hands on the King's perſon, and putting one of them on his ſhoulder, he with the other ſtabbed him in the right ſide, juſt at the fifth rib, with a knife made pen-knife faſhion. The King immediately ſaid, *I have had a furious ſtroke given me:* then paſſing his hand under his cloaths, and drawing it back all bloody, he cried out he was wounded. At that inſtant he turned about, and perceiving Damiens, who had his hat upon his head (which he had never taken off, though bid, before the blow, to do it, when he anſwered, *it is my way*) he ſaid, *there is the man who ſtruck me, let him be ſeized,*

* The perſon deſcribed by the guard, was, as before remarked, thin, and of a ſtature at moſt of five feet; about five and thirty, or forty, years of age; his hair in a bag, his coat brown, and rather thread-bare, with a plain hat; but though a perſon ſomewhat anſwering this deſcription was taken up, on ſuſpicion, after the execution of Damiens, nothing has yet appeared to convict him: and in truth the moſt probable opinion is, that Damiens had no accomplice, or abettor, in his deſperate attempt.

and

and no harm done to him: and then his Majeſty immediately went up to his apartment.

This is not the place to expreſs the conſternation, the horror, the affliction with which the whole people were ſeized on the news of this execrable attempt; nor how great their conſolation was, when the next day they were aſſured, that his life was out of danger.

The villain was inſtantly ſeized by one of the King's footmen, and delivered up to the guards; who carried him into their hall, where he was ſtripped, ſearched, and the fatal knife found upon him, with which he had committed the crime. This knife had two blades, the one a common one, pretty large, and pointed; the other, in the ſhape of a penknife, five or ſix inches long; he had had the time to wipe and ſhut it, for there was no blood to be ſeen upon it. There were alſo found upon him ſix or ſeven and thirty, lewidores, ſome ſilver money, and a book entitled, *Chriſtian Prayers and Inſtructions*; the book he declared was given him by his brother at St. Omers. This was all that was found upon him worth notice.

From the firſt inſtant that he was in the hands of the King's guards, on the queſtions that were made to him, he ſaid twice or thrice. *Let them take care of my Lord the Dauphin: do not let my Lord the Dauphin go out for the reſt of the day.* Being preſſed to impeach his accomplices, he ſaid, *They were a great way off by this time, and out of reach; but that if he impeached them, all would be over.* He alſo ſaid, *that if four or five Biſhops heads had been ſtruck off, this would not have happened.*

In the midſt of theſe extra-judicial interrogations, the zeal of thoſe who put them to him, and their juſt horror of the villain, incited them to try to wring from him the impeachment of his accomplices, by dint of torture. They placed him near a violent fire, and pinched his feet about the ankles with red-hot tongs; but it was not long before they were ſenſible of the danger of thus torturing the criminal.

The Provoſt of the palace took the cauſe in hand, and confined him to the jail of Verſailles, till further orders; and in the mean time care was taken to ſeize all the perſons any ways related to Damiens, as his father, wife, daughter, brothers, and ſiſter, Madam Ripandelly's maid who had let Damiens into the houſe, and others with whom he had connexions.

In the jail of Verſailles, one Belot, an Exempt of the guards, being employed as a ſweetener, by affecting to pity him, wormed himſelf ſo far into his confidence, that he prevailed on him

to dictate the following letter to the King, without date, which Damiens himſelf ſigned.

COPY of the LETTER.

SIRE,

" I Am very ſorry to have had the misfortune of approaching " you; but if you do not take your people's part, before " many years are over, you, and my Lord the Dauphin, and " ſome others, will periſh. It would be vexatious that ſo good " a Prince, ſhould, through his overfondneſs for the Clergy, " on whom he beſtows his whole confidence, not be ſure of his " life; and if you have not the goodneſs to remedy the ſame in " a little time, great misfortunes will happen, your kingdom " not being in ſafety. * Unhappily for you, your ſubjects have " given you their demiſſion, the affair not proceeding but from " them. And if you are not ſo good to your people, as to or- " der the ſacraments to be adminiſtered at the point of death, " (they having been refuſed ſince your holding your Bed of Juſ- " tice, upon which the court of Chatelet had the goods of " a Prieſt who had fled for it, ſold,) I repeat to you, that your " life is not ſafe; the advice is very true, of which I take the " liberty to inform you, by the Officer who is the bearer hereof, " in whom I have put all my confidence. The Archbiſhop of " Paris is the cauſe of all this trouble, by his refuſal of the ſa- " craments. After the cruel crime that I have juſt committed " upon your ſacred perſon, the ſincere confeſſion which I take " the liberty of making to you, makes me hope for clemency " from your Majeſty's goodneſs.

Signed DAMIENS.

" P. S. I forgot to repreſent to your Majeſty, that notwithſtand- " ing the orders you gave, that no harm ſhould be done to me †, " my Lord the Keeper of the Seals, had two pair of tongs " heated for me in the guard-room, whilſt he held me himſelf, " and ordered two of the guard to burn my legs; which was " executed, he promiſing them a reward; and alſo bidding " them fetch two faggots, to make up the fire, for me,

* The period beginning with *unhappily*, is the neareſt the literal tranſlation of the French that can be. *Par malheur pour vous, vos ſujets vous ont donne leur démiſſion, l'affaire ne provenant que de leur part.* Vol. I. p. 205. The Judge could not get him to explain ſatisfactorily his meaning in it

† This Lord Keeper, the priſoner then reproached with his being one of the authors of the national troubles, by his betraying the cauſe of the Parliament.

" to

"to be thrown into it; and that without Monſ. Le Clerc, who "hindred their project, I ſhould not have had the honour to "furniſh you the above information.

Signed DAMIENS."

Belot carried this letter, or having feigned to carry it to the King, returned with an anſwer, that his Majeſty did not think his letter clear, and full enough, and therefore required further lights; and by this inſinuation drew from Damiens a note of ſeven names as follows.

COPY of the NOTE.

'Meſſieurs Chagrange, ſecond.
'Baille de Liſle.
'De la Guiomye.
'Clement.
'Lambert.
'The Preſident De Rieux Bonnainvilliers.
'The Preſident du Maſſy*, *and almoſt all.*

'He (the King) muſt re-inſtate his Parliament, and ſupport 'it, with a promiſe to do nothing to the above-written, and 'company.

'Signed DAMIENS'.

It is here to be obſerved, that Belot proceeded very raſhly, and unfairly, in writing down the names of theſe men of high character and probity, on the dictating of this wretch; eſpecially as he gave them in purely as perſons whom he barely knew, being by Belot aſked, if he knew any Counſellors of Parliament, and by no means as accomplices of his crime; and when he was ſenſible, by a queſtion of Belot's to that purpoſe, that ſuch an uſe might be made of this note, as to charge, or at leaſt render them ſuſpected, even of criminal aſſemblies, he expreſſed the utmoſt ſorrow, and would fain have had it again to have burnt it. He alſo bitterly complained of Belot's teizing him out of the letter firſt written, by pretences of pity, by embraces, and ſqueezes of the hand. But theſe Counſellors were not the only perſons thus endeavoured to be brought into ſuſpicion: there was ſome art uſed to ſuggeſt to him an accuſation of the Engliſh, as may appear by the following interrogatories†. (Page 165, vol. II.)

* By *almoſt all* he meant, that almoſt all of the Parliament thought of the Clergy as he did.

† Conſidering that this criminal was of a character readily to ſeize any falſehoods, and to ſtand to them afterwards; that he was alſo often

Interrogatory 381. Whether he had made a voyage to England, and if his deſign was not to return thither from Dunkirk, the laſt time he was there?

Anſwer. He never was in England.

Int. 382. Whether, in the different ſervices he had paſſed through, he had not ſerved foreigners, eſpecially the ENGLISH?

Anſ. He had not.

But, to reſume the thread of the narrative, return we to the circumſtance of Damien's being confined in the jail of Verſailles, from the cognizance of whoſe provoſtſhip, the King tranſferred the cauſe to the parliament of Paris, with ratification of the proceedings, ſo far as they had been already carried on in the Provoſt's court.

The priſoner was accordingly, Jan. 17, 1757, removed, under a ſtrong guard, from Verſailles to the *Conciergerie*, where he arrived at two o'clock in the morning of the 18th.

The intereſting charge of keeping this priſoner ſafe for judgment, made every poſſible human precaution to be taken againſt his eſcape, by ſtrengthening the priſon, by poſting centinels, guards, &c. who patrolled conſtantly the night-rounds. On the inſide of the *Conciergerie*, there were centinels placed from the entry to the court in which ſtands the tower of Montgomery. At the bottom of this tower was placed a ſmall corps-de-guard of twelve ſoldiers, who ſerved to relieve the centinels within. All along the ſtairs of the ſaid tower, there were alſo poſted centinels at proper diſtances. In the firſt ſtory was the room in which Damiens was confined. This room is round, and may be about twelve feet broad, every way; receiving no light but through two caſemates, or falſe windows, from eight to nine inches in breadth, by three feet in heighth. Theſe openings are ſecured with double bars, and defended from the weather only by moveable frames with oil-paper. There was in this room nei-

often interrogated, as himſelf complained, when he was actually delirious, and his anſwers then taken down, nothing could be more cruel and unjuſt than to put ſuch *leading* queſtions to him, which were ſo many ſnares for blackening the innocent; but which, however, weak and wicked as he was, he avoided, until by dint of tortures he was at length prevailed on, towards the end of his trial, to name one Gautier, by whom he declared he had been inſtigated to the perpretration of this black act, and who, on examination, appeared to be perfectly innocent: though an over-officiouſneſs engaged the judges, on this wretch's depoſition, to order him a year's confinement proviſionally, for more matters to come againſt him: a ſtrain of injuſtice happily unknown to the Engliſh laws.

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ther chimney nor fire, but it was ſufficiently warmed by a ſtove placed in the guard-room beneath it, and by the candles continually burning in the room. At firſt, they uſed tallow-candles, but afterwards, by the advice of the phyſicians, for the preſerving the wholeſomeneſs of the air, they burnt none but wax.

The bed of the priſoner was diſpoſed as follows: the head of the bed fronted the door exactly, at the diſtance of three feet from the wall. The bed was placed on a bed-ſtead raiſed about ſix inches from the ground, and mattreſſes round, ſo as to project ſix inches beyond the bed-ſtead. The bed's head was in the whole breadth raiſed three feet above the bolſter, and was likewiſe matreſſed; being ſo contrived, with ſprings, to raiſe or lower, according as the convenience of the priſoner ſhould require it. In this bed he was faſtened by an aſſemblage of ſtrong leather ſtraps, two inches and an half broad. Theſe ſtraps kept his ſhoulders confined, and were, on each ſide of the bed, made faſt to two rings ſtapled to the floor. Two other ſtraps formed a ligature for each of his arms, and were connected by another placed on the breaſt-bone; and theſe two branches formed a ſort of hand-cuff, that left the hand and arm no liberty, but as directed to the mouth. Theſe ſtraps were likewiſe tied, at their ends, to two rings ſecured as the firſt. Two ſtraps of the ſame form alſo confined his thighs, and were tied in like manner; ſo that from each ſide of the bed came three branches of ſtraps. Beſides theſe, that which was placed on the breaſt, deſcending to the feet, formed a ſort of ſurcingle, and was tied at the foot of the bed to a ring in the middle of the floor; the ſtrap too which ſecured his ſhoulders, was faſtened in like manner over the bed's head, to a ring ſtapled in the floor like the reſt. Under the arms and hands of the priſoner was ſpread a large carpet of hide, that he might not contract any inflammatory heat, or excoriation.

These precautions had appeared neceſſary, becauſe in the jail of Verſailles, the criminal had tried means to make away with himſelf. It was alſo in conſequence of the like precautions that when Damiens was ſet down out of the coach that had brought him from Verſailles to the *Conciergerie*, he was wrapped up in a ſort of hammock, to hinder him, by any ſudden motion, from running his head againſt the walls of the ſtair-caſe, which is very narrow. The ſame caution was uſed on the cloſe of the proceſs, and when he was brought to receive his ſentence.

Beſides theſe precautions, twelve of the moſt diſcreet and ſenſible ſerjeants of the regiment of guards were choſen; four of which relieved one another every four hours, and were ſucceſſively day and night in the room with him. The eight

others were poſted in an appartment immediately over him, and ready on the leaſt call, or noiſe, with their aſſiſtance. Theſe twelve ſerjeants never ſtirred all the time out of Montgomery's tower, but with the priſoner; and they alone with the officer of the guard, which was every day relieved, had liberty to ſpeak to him; and even to them it was enjoined, rather to hear him, than to talk to him.

As the ſores which the burning him at Verſailles had bred, could not be healed till after more than two months, he was all that time in bed, without getting up, but for indiſpenſible bodily neceſſities. For his perſonal ſervice were alſo ſelected four of the moſt diſcreet ſoldiers, who did the office of infirmariſts, and who never left him, nor had any communication but with the ſerjeants before mentioned.

As to his nouriſhment, that was given in charge to one of the officers of the kitchen, who prepared his victuals according to a regimen preſcribed by the phyſicians; and before what he was to eat was ſet before him, it was always taſted by a ſurgeon, who conſtantly ſlept in the priſon. The care of his health was committed to Monſ. Boyer, a phyſician, and to Monſ. Foubert, a ſurgeon, both of them ordinaries of the parliament. They viſited him three times a day, dreſſed his wounds, and reported his ſituation to the firſt Preſident of the parliament every morning.

He was in this condition when the commiſſaries went to interrogate him, on the 18th of January. This firſt interrogatory was not cloſed till the 17th of March following, during which interval they had four others ſittings on the ſame interrogatory, ſome of which laſted ſix or ſeven hours.

Whilſt this proceſs was going on, a diſcovery was made by chance, on the 22d of January, at Madam Ripandelly's, of a canvas bag, which, without the knowlege of his wife and daughter, Damiens had hidden on the mantle-piece of the kitchen chimney, in which were 1206 livres (about fifty guineas) in Lewis-d'ores, and double Lewis-d'ores, and one crown-piece in ſilver. For leaving which there, Damiens gave the following reaſon, that knowing his wife would not receive, or take charge of that ſum, he intended to have acquainted her with it by letter, that ſhe might make reſtitution of it to Monſ. Michel, as being part of what he had ſtolen from him.

During this trial numbers of perſons were brought into trouble on ſuſpicion, grounded on words lightly dropped by madmen, and even from girls of thirteen years of age; and on malicious in-

informations, all too tedious, and too impertinent to the affair of Damiens himſelf, to need particularizing here.

On the 26th of March, the proceſs of examination and conviction being cloſed, the Attorney General inſiſted in his concluſions againſt Damiens, that he ſhould be condemned to the ſame pains as Ravaillac underwent on the like account; that he ſhould, previouſly to his ſuffering death, be put to the torture, and that judgment againſt the others accuſed, ſhould be ſuſpended till his execution was over. To all which the court agreed.

It may be neceſſary to obſerve, that in one of the preceding ſittings, it being foreſeen, that Damiens would be put to the torture, it was agitated what kind of torture ſhould be uſed on this occaſion. Sundry memorials and inſtructions had been put into the Attorney-General's hands, relative thereto, and the whole of them was communicated to the phyſicians and ſurgeons of the court, who were unanimous in their opinion, that of all the methods of torture, the leaſt dangerous to life, and the leaſt ſuſceptible of accidents, was that commonly employed by the parliament, and known by the name of *La queſtion des Brodequins*; and in Scotland, where it ſeems it was once in uſe, by the name of *the Boot*. The ſaid phyſicians and ſurgeons then communicated the reſult of their *profound* and *humane* ſtudies for prolonging the pain, and for rendering it the moſt excruciating that could be, without the hazard of the criminal's ſinking under its violence, of his loſing his ſenſes, and underſtanding, or of his baulking, by death, the plan of the final tortures prepared for him.

This practice was then adopted, though in the ſentence there was no other ſpecification of it, than that he ſhould be put to the torture, ordinary and extraordinary.

It is alſo to be obſerved, that though the conſtant cuſtom be, never to grant a confeſſor to the criminal till after his condemnation, nevertheleſs, in conſideration of the importance of this caſe, and in the hope of obtaining, through ſentiments of religion and repentance, thoſe confeſſions they had not hitherto been able to wring from the criminal's mouth, it was determined, that Monſ. Gueret, Curate of St. Paul, in Paris, and Doctor of the Sorbonne, ſhould be engaged to attend Damiens, and to try to move him to a diſcovery. In conſequence of which he attended him from Monday the 21ſt of January, and every day redoubled his care and viſits till the moment of his execution, and even during the execution itſelf.

Things were in this ſituation, when Damiens appeared on the ſtool of examination, before his judges, on Saturday the

26th, at half an hour after eight in the morning. He betrayed no ſymptom of confuſion at the ſight of this auguſt aſſembly; but looked round at the whole audience; recollected, and named, ſeveral of his judges; and preſerved a ſingular preſence of mind and reſolution: even allowing himſelf the liberty of ſeveral ſhrewd repartees and pleaſantries. The cloſe of his interrogatory on this day is too curious to omit. Vol. III. p. 325.

Interr. 165. Being aſked, who had made him believe that it was a meritorious action to kill the King?

Anſ. That his intention was not to kill him; and has nothing further to anſwer thereon.

166. Being aſked how he could imagine that he could ſtab the King in ſuch a manner as only to wound, and not kill him?*.

Anſ. That if he had plunged the knife three quarters of an inch higher, he had killed him.

167. Being aſked what precaution he had taken to ſtab the King juſt in that part he had ſtabbed him in?

Anſ. That if he had formed an intention to kill the King, no body could have hindered him from giving him ſeveral ſtabs.

168. It was remonſtrated to him, that the anſwer he had juſt made, ſtood falſified by what himſelf had ſaid, under precedent interrogations, when he owned, that the whole horror of the crime had preſented itſelf to his mind, on the inſtant of his committing it; that his legs had failed him, and that he ſcarce knew where he was.

Anſ. That ſince he had the time to ſhut his knife, and put it up in his pocket, he muſt probably know where he was.

169. It being remonſtrated to him, that his anſwer evidently proves the confuſion of head in which he was; and that he would not have failed of taking off his hat, and of availing himſelf of the time he had to eſcape, if his mind had been free.

Anſ. That he has nothing more to ſay on that head †.

* He had, under preceding interrogatories, averred, that he intended his blow only for a warning to the King, for his future better government.

† He had before ſaid, that though what he had done was for the ſake of religion, the Virgin Mary had deſerted him, by his not having it in his head to take his hat off: which circumſtance was alone the occaſion of his being marked, and ſeized.

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170. It was repreſented to him, that his confuſion and obſtinacy in not declaring from what principles he judged his action a meritorious one, is a proof that he is bound by ſome terrible oath, not to reveal the poiſoned ſpring from which he drew ſuch a principle.

Anſ. He has nothing to anſwer on that point.

171. Being required to declare, how he came to believe, that his crime would make the national diſturbances ceaſe?

Anſ. That he had no intention to kill the King, but to let him know the enemies he had in his court.

172. Being aſked, how he could have thereby let the King know his enemies?

Anſ. That the King had never liſtened to any of the remonſtrances that had been made to him.

173. It being remonſtrated to him, that his action muſt then have been intended to puniſh him for not liſtening to ſuch remonſtrances.

Anſ. That it was not HIM who ought to have been puniſhed.

On this Damiens was ordered to be withdrawn.

Monday, March 28. At ſeven o'clock in the morning, the criminal was carried up to the torture-room. From that moment he ceaſed to be under cuſtody of the French guards, and, according to cuſtom, it was the Lieutenant of the Short-robe of the Châtelet who had charge of him.

The Recorder read the ſentence to the criminal, who heard it through with attention and intrepidity, and, on raiſing himſelf, ſaid, 'that the day would be a ſharp one.'

A little before eight o'clock, ſix of the Commiſſaries being aſſembled in the torture-room, the criminal was placed on the ſtool, and underwent his laſt interrogatory, which laſted near an hour and an half: Damiens all the time preſerving his uſual firmneſs. That over, the executioners of juſtice began to put the legs of the criminal into the boot, and the ropes were tightned with more rigor than had ever been practiſed; and perhaps this is the moſt exquiſitely painful moment of the whole proceſs of that torture. Damiens began to ſend forth the moſt piercing cries, and ſeemed even to faint away; but the phyſicians and ſurgeons, who are always preſent at the torture, on examination, knew that the ſwooning was not real. Damiens aſked to drink; they gave him water, but he inſiſted on having ſome wine in it, ſaying, 'now or never ſtrength is neceſſary.' It was not till half

half an hour afterwards that the firſt wedge was applied. They had let this interval elapſe, in order to have the numbneſs got over, which commonly follows the violent compreſſion of the ligature, and that the ſenſibility might be at its height; and, indeed, at the application of the firſt wedge, Damiens made dreadful outcries, but without paſſion, or any indecent word. During the ſame, the Firſt Preſident renewed his interrogatories, and principally with reſpect to accomplices; and having aſked who induced him to commit the crime, he cried out, 'It is Gautier.' (This was the firſt moment of his ever mentioning him.) Being aſked who Gautier was, he told; as alſo where he lived; and charged him with having uſed very criminal expreſſions, in preſence of Monſ. le Maître de Ferrieres, whoſe affairs this man managed, and lodged at his houſe. Upon this declaration, the Commiſſaries gave orders to the Lieutenant of the Short-robe to bring away directly before them, in that room, the ſaid De Ferrieres and Gautier. Whilſt they were gone for, the torture continued, with intervals of a quarter of an hour between the driving of each wedge, at every one of which Damiens renewed his ſhrieks and outcries *. The moſt home and preſſing interrogations imaginable were all the while put to him; and after having remained two hours and an half under the torture, the phyſician and ſurgeon adviſed not to keep him longer in it, as it could not be done without danger of his life. Conſequently he was untied, and placed upon the mattreſs, where having heard the verbal proceſs, and his anſwers, he perſiſted therein.

Soon after arrived ſucceſſively Gautier, and Monſ. le Maître de Ferrieres. Gautier appeared firſt, with the countenance of a man ſurprized, but who knows himſelf innocent. When he heard the declaration made by Damiens concerning him, his aſtoniſhment was exceſſive. He ſtrongly denied all that was contained in it, and Damiens as firmly maintained it; upon which the Commiſſaries ordered Gautier to priſon.

Next appeared Monſ. de Ferrieres: this was a ſhocking circumſtance for a man of his birth; though he bore it with decency and modeſty. He denied his having been preſent at the talk imputed to Gautier, and Damiens was leſs poſitive at this confrontment. Upon which the Commiſſaries diſmiſſed M. de Ferrieres, and ſet him at liberty.

Whilſt Meſſ. de Ferrieres and Gautier were waited for, Damiens had aſked if he might not ſee again the curate of St. Paul. He was ſent for, and the Commiſſaries withdrawing, Damiens

* At the eighth and laſt wedge he cried out, 'Why had I ſo weak a head, the King being ſo mild and good a Prince?'

ſtaid

ſtaid with him in the torture-room near an hour; after which he was carried down to the chapel of the *Conciergerie*, where the curate of St. Paul put him into the hands of Monſ. de Marcilly, Doctor of the Sorbonne, whoſe zeal had been often exerciſed on ſuch occaſions. An hour afterwards the curate of St. Paul returned to the *Conciergerie*, and theſe two Divines jointly redoubled their ſpiritual care of the criminal.

Towards three o'clock, notice was given to the Commiſſaries, that every thing was ready for the execution: upon which they inſtantly repaired to the town-hall, preceded, according to cuſtom, by the officers and archers of the Lieutenant of the Short-robe.

Several days before, there had been prepared, at the common place of execution, called the Greve, a ſpace of one hundred feet ſquare, ſurrounded with palliſades, and having no entrance open, but in one corner, for the admiſſion of the criminal, and for communication with the town-hall. This ſpace was guarded on the inſide by the Lieutenant of the Short-robe, (whoſe function on theſe occaſions anſwers to that of the Sheriff in England) and his company, and on the outſide by the ſoldiers of the foot-watch. The horſe-patrol was poſted in the ſquare of Veaux. The avenues of the Greve were lined at proper diſtances by detachments of the French guards, as alſo the way from the Hall of Juſtice to the church of Notre-dame. There were alſo corps-de-guards ſtationed at all the quarters and principal ſtreet-ends of the town. In ſhort, all the neceſſary precautions were taken to ſecure the public order and tranquility.

The criminal being arrived at the church of Notre-dame, he acquitted himſelf of the ceremony of the *amende honorable*, in the form preſcribed by his ſentence, with an air of contrition and repentance. He was accompanied by the two divines before mentioned, who did not quit him till his laſt breath.

Being come to the Greve, he deſired to ſpeak with the Commiſſaries, who gave orders for him to be brought up to them, in the Town-hall, which he accordingly was. All the declaration he made to them, was no more than to aſk pardon of the Archbiſhop for the injurious expreſſions he had uſed concerning him; to declare, that his wife and daughter were innocent, and to recommend them to the charity of the Commiſſaries; and, in fine, he declared, that in his crime there was neither plot or accomplice. Both the Commiſſaries and Divines united in exhortations to him, to avail himſelf of theſe laſt moments for diſcovering all he knew; but he perſiſted in averring that he had nothing more to declare. It is alſo to be obſerved, that

that during this time, the Divines had ſeveral times preſented a crucifix to him, which he reſpectfully kiſſed.

The Commiſſaries ſeeing there was nothing more to be expected from the criminal's declarations, ordered him to be led back to the Greve. He waited there ſome conſiderable time, becauſe the executioner had not been careful enough to have every thing ready; for which he was afterwards puniſhed by commitment, for ſeveral days, to the dungeon.

When Damiens was ſtripped, it was obſerved, that he ſurveyed and conſidered all his body and limbs with attention, and that he looked round with firmneſs on the vaſt concourſe of ſpectators.

Towards five o'clock he was placed on the ſcaffold which had been erected in the middle of the encloſed area, and was raiſed about three feet and an half from the ground; the length from eight to nine feet, and of about the ſame breadth. The criminal was inſtantly tied, and afterwards faſtened by iron gyves, which confined him under the arms, and above the thighs. The firſt torment he underwent, was that of having his hand burnt in the flame of brimſtone: the pain of which made him ſend forth ſuch a terrible cry as might be heard a great way off. A moment afterwards he raiſed his head, and looked for ſome time earneſtly at his hand, without renewing his cries, and without expreſſing any paſſion, or breaking out into any imprecation. To this firſt torment ſucceeded that of pinching him with red-hot pinchers, in the arms, thighs, and breaſts. At each pinch he was heard to ſhriek in the ſame manner, as when his hand was burnt. He looked and gazed at each wound, and his cries ceaſed as ſoon as the pinching was over. They afterwards poured boiling oil, and melted lead and roſin, into every wound, except thoſe of the breaſt, which produced, in all thoſe circumſtances, the ſame effect as the two firſt tortures. The tenor of his articulated exclamations, at times, was as follows: 'Strengthen me, Lord God; ſtrengthen me!—Lord God, have pity on me!—O Lord, my God, what do I not ſuffer!—Lord God, give me patience!'

At length they proceeded to the ligatures of his arms, legs, and thighs, in order to diſmember him. This preparation was very long and painful, the cords, ſtreightly tied, bearing grievouſly upon the freſh wounds. This drew new cries from the ſufferer; but did not hinder him from viewing and conſidering himſelf with a ſtrange and ſingular curioſity.

The horſes having been put to the draught, the pulls were repeated for a long time, with frightful cries on the part of the ſufferer:

ferer: the extenſion of whoſe members was incredible, and yet nothing gave ſigns of the diſmemberment taking place.

In ſpite of the ſtraining efforts of the horſes, which were young and vigorous, and, perhaps, too much ſo, being the more reſtive and unmanageable for drawing in concert, this laſt torment had now laſted for more than an hour, without any proſpect of its ending. The phyſician and ſurgeon certified to the Commiſſaries, that it was almoſt impoſſible to accompliſh the diſmemberment, if the action of the horſes was not aided by cutting the principal ſinews, which might, indeed, ſuffer a length of extenſion, but not be ſeparated without an amputation. Upon this atteſtation the Commiſſaries ſent an order to the executioner, to make ſuch an amputation, with regard eſpecially to the night coming on, as it ſeemed to them fitting that the execution ſhould be over before the cloſe of the day.

In conſequence of this order, the ſinews of the ſufferer were cut at the joints of the arms and thighs. The horſes then drew afreſh, and after ſeveral pulls, a thigh and arm were ſeen to ſunder from the body. Damiens ſtill looked at this painful ſeparation, and ſeemed to preſerve ſome ſenſe and knowlege after both thighs, and one arm, were thus ſevered from his body: nor was it till the other arm went away that he expired.

As ſoon as it was certain, that there was no life left, the body and ſcattered limbs were thrown into a fire prepared for that purpoſe near the ſcaffold, where they were all reduced to aſhes.

The next day, after various formalities, in conſequence of the execution, upon the concluſions of the Attorney-General, with regard to the family of Damiens, a ſentence was iſſued, ordering his father, wife, and daughter to quit the kingdom immediately, and for ever; under pain of death if ever they are found in it *. As to the brothers and ſiſters, they were enjoined to change their name, and the demolition of the houſe in which Damiens was born, was alſo ordered.

Thus with reſpect to Damiens himſelf, and his family, was this procedure ended, on the fair review of which it will appear that the whole of this affair is cleared up, and that this attempt on the life of Lewis XV. was the reſult of nothing but the madneſs of a poor wretch, who (as it plainly appeared, in the courſe

* It ought not here to be omitted, that the King of France had the charity, in conſideration of the evident innocence of theſe unfortunate perſons, and of the prejudices and difficulties they would have to encounter, in order to gain a livelihood, to give each of them a ſmall penſion for life.

of the trial) ought long before to have been locked up in a madhouſe*: ſo that whatever attrociouſneſs there was in his crime, the deteſtation ſo juſtly due to it is entirely loſt in the conſideration of his being deprived of his ſenſes; which rendered him rather an object of the deepeſt compaſſion, than of thoſe infernal tortures at which humanity ſhudders, and can hardly admit of a caſe being poſſible to exiſt, wherein it could be allowable to uſe them, or to forget, in any criminal, his being a fellow-creature. I am, &c. X.

* Beſides his way of talking to himſelf, a number of depoſitions concurred to form a complete proof of his having been long out of his mind. Amongſt others (vol. II. p. 257) Madame de Sainte Rheuze, a lady to whom he had been ſervant, declared, that ſhe had turned him away from having obſerved his madneſs; that, to ſpecify one inſtance thereof, when he had the choice of ſeveral convenient rooms to lodge in, he had choſen a garret almoſt wholly uncovered, into which it rained and ſnowed; that when the deponent wanted to ſend him on an errand, he would excuſe himſelf on the pretence of vapours; that he would often look at himſelf in the glaſſes of the apartment; and that he was always talking to himſelf: but that, for the reſt, ſhe knew no other harm of him whilſt he ſtaid with her.

In the depoſition of Playoult (ſee page 61) it is ſaid, that Damiens, charged him ſeriouſly with being a conjurer, becauſe he had by him a wax taper with ſeven holes in it, which were the wax-chandler's mark. In ſhort, there was hardly a depoſition taken about him, that did not manifeſtly prove him to be downright mad.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For JULY, 1757.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 1. *Travels in Egypt and Nubia.* By Frederic-Lewis Norden, *F. R. S. Captain of the Daniſh Navy. Tranſlated from the Original publiſhed by Command of his Majeſty the King of Denmark; and enlarged with Obſervations from ancient and modern Authors that have written on the Antiquities of Egypt.* By Dr. Peter Templeman. Folio. 2 vols. 3l. 16s. ſewed. Davis.

AS we gave, in the fifteenth volume of our Review, a very full and, we hope, a ſatisfactory account of this work, from the original edition of Copenhagen, little is left for us to add on the preſent occaſion. Let it then ſuffice to obſerve, that Mr. Davis has done juſtice both to the Author and to the Public, by the handſome and elegant manner in which this edition is executed. It is, in truth, a

moſt ſplendid work; perhaps in no reſpect inferior to the Daniſh impreſſion. As to the plates, (for which Mr. Norden's performance is more peculiarly to be recommended to every admirer of the elegant arts) they are the *very ſame*: a circumſtance that cannot but give particular ſatisfaction to all who are acquainted with the maſterly execution of the celebrated Tuſcher; with whom we had the pleaſure of a perſonal acquaintance, and who was no leſs to be eſteemed as a man, than admired as an artiſt.

The manner in which the original engravings for this work were obtained for the Engliſh tranſlation, is thus mentioned by the Editor.—'When the firſt volume of this work made its appearance, 'ſome years ſince, many among the learned and curious of this na'tion expreſſed their deſire that the public ſhould be furniſhed with 'an Engliſh edition of it: but the expence of engraving ſo large a 'number of plates, and the improbability, to ſay the leaſt, of get'ting them executed any thing comparable to the originals, were rea'ſons ſufficient to deter from ſo arduous an undertaking thoſe to 'whom it was ſtrongly recommended. The method that appeared 'eligible to the proprietors of the preſent edition, perhaps the only 'method that could prudently be fixed upon to bring out an edition 'truly valuable, was to attempt the purchaſe of the original plates: 'and the intereſt they were favoured with, proving ſuperior to that 'of others of their profeſſion in foreign countries, who alſo applied, 'they ſucceeded.

'The advantage of being in poſſeſſion of the original plates, be'yond any thing that was to be expected from imitations, the judi'cious Reader will eaſily conceive upon peruſing the Preface, written 'by the Gentlemen of the Royal Society of Sciences at Copenhagen. 'And I may add, that as the number of copies taken off for the 'French edition, was extremely inconſiderable, and the moſt care'ful regard has been paid to the choice of ſuch a paper as has not 'failed to do juſtice to the engravings, I do not doubt but, upon a 'compariſon, the impreſſions of the Engliſh edition will be found 'even to have a preference to thoſe of the French.

'It is proper to mention, that the Arabic names on the plates are 'frequently erroneous, for the Author ingenuouſly owns, that he 'did not underſtand that language. It was almoſt impoſſible to make 'the neceſſary alterations, and I am perſuaded the generality of Read'ers will think an incorrectneſs in that article of no great import'ance*. Nor has any alteration been made with regard to the 'French references and explanations: as an attempt to eraze and re'engrave ſuch a quantity of writing muſt unavoidably have injured 'many of the plates, it was thought more adviſeable that they ſhould 'remain in their original ſtate. I have taken care, however, to ſup'ply the Engliſh Reader with a tranſlation of them in the table pre'fixed to each volume.'

* Here the learned Reader will probably differ from our Editor: but we muſt allow him to put the beſt face upon a defect he could not rectify.

Art.

Art. 2. *Travels in Egypt and Nubia*; *by* Frederic-Lewis Norden, *F. R. S. &c. Enlarged with Obſervations from ancient and modern Writers, &c. By Dr.* Peter Templeman. Octavo. 6s. Davis.

Concerning this octavo edition of theſe Travels, it will be unneceſſary for us to add any thing to what the Editor himſelf has obſerved, in his preliminary Advertiſement: viz.

'Leſt the Reader,' ſays he, 'ſhould be led to conſider it in the 'light of *an abridgment*, it may not be improper to ſay, that it con-'tains not only the whole of the Author's obſervations, but thoſe ad-'ditional ones alſo which the Editor thought it neceſſary to illuſtrate 'the *folio edition*.—A manifeſt inferiority, however, muſt be ac-'knowleged to lie in the want of the numerous inimitable *deſigns* 'which the original ſtands enriched withal: to ſupply this deficiency, 'nothing more could be done than to engrave, upon a *ſmaller ſcale*, 'as many of the *moſt remarkable* ones, as could be comprized with-'in the compaſs of the preſent plan.'

Art. 3. *Memoires for the Hiſtory of Madame de Maintenon, and of the laſt Age. Tranſlated from the French, by the Author of the* Female Quixote. 12mo. 5 vols. 15s. Millar.

Unaccountable is the fondneſs of ſome French Hiſtorians, for connecting the revolutions of an age with the Memoirs of perſons who neither poſſeſſed ſufficient power, nor were ſo deeply engaged in intrigue, as to influence any of its important events. We are at a loſs in what claſs to place ſuch amphibious productions; as they are generally an aſſemblage of truth and falſehood; in which Hiſtory wears the face of Romance, and Romance aſſumes the appearance of Hiſtory; where the Writer's endeavours are equally exerted in rendering trifles important, and ſubjects of importance trifling. Who but muſt ſmile at accounts wherein ſome little perſonage, indebted to the Hiſtorian, perhaps, for notice, takes the lead in an Hiſtory of Europe, and connects its incidents! It brings to memory the Courts of ancient Kings, where a dwarf was generally employed as Maſter of the Ceremonies.

The work, now under view, conſiſts, in the original, of fifteen volumes; the firſt ſix of which contain Memoirs of M. Maintenon, regularly connected, in the manner of an Hiſtory; the next enſuing eight contain this Lady's epiſtolatory correſpondence; and the laſt is made up of Letters from the Biſhop of Chartres, her ſpiritual Director.

Fifteen volumes, relative to the Hiſtory of M. Maintenon, who could ever have expected to ſee? but never was the Republic of Letters ſo copiouſly ſupplied from the preſs as at preſent: *Quo corruptior eſt Status, eo plures ſunt leges.* We could with pleaſure and emolument have accompanied the Lady in her adventures through half a volume, or ſo; but to be baited with the piety of a female Devotee, to be ſerved up with the ſtale amours of an old Monarch, battered with debauchery, thro' almoſt fifteen long volumes!—The Hiſtorian may perſuade

perſuade us to pardon the failings of his heroine, but we can never forgive his prolixity in her defence.

The Author makes many profeſſions of veracity; and informs us he has rummaged ſeveral cabinets for authentic materials; yet ſtill it muſt be acknowleged, he frequently forgets the Hiſtorian in the Novelliſt: often giving us ſpeeches which are as unlikely to be genuine, as it is improbable that the ſpeakers or hearers ſhould ever divulge ſuch converſations. He frequently contradicts truth, and as frequently himſelf; ſometimes ſubſtitutes antitheſis to thought, and ſeems more deſirous of being ſmart than judicious. With all theſe imperfections, can we expect entertainment in ſuch a Writer?—Yet, in ſpite of his defects, he certainly affords a great deal; his triſles are often made intereſting, by an engaging manner; his reflections are always ſprightly; and his ſtile ſo peculiarly elegant, (tho' in ſome places too much laboured) that we eaſily perceive the ſubject far beneath the Writer's abilities; and tho' we ſee not in him much merit as an *Hiſtorian*, he poſſeſſes many excellencies as a *Writer*. In ſhort, ſuch Readers as like a great deal of amuſement, with a little hiſtory, and a little truth, will have their taſte amply gratified, and their time agreeably ſpent upon the performance of Mr. Baumele.

We are at a loſs to account for Mr. Voltaire's calling the preſent performance a Romance; he, of all men, ſhould have been cautious of thus ſtigmatizing a work which bears ſo ſtrong a reſemblance to *The Age of Lewis* XIV.

Art. 4. *The Mother-in-Law, or the Innocent Sufferer; interſperſed with the uncommon and entertaining Adventures of Mr. Hervey Faulconer.* 2 vols. 12mo. 6s. Noble.

This performance ſeems to come from the ſame hand which obliged us with the Guiltleſs Parricide *. For inſtance: 'Madam having the 'proverb of her ſide, eſcaped only with a bruiſe or two upon her 'legs and one ſhoulder; but her huſband, poor man, looked more 'like a ſpectre than a living perſon, when he appeared; for his 'head was moſt confoundedly broken againſt the iron ketch in the 'ceiling of the landau, beſides ſeveral ſevere bruiſes which lay con-'cealed under the weightier calamity to his noddle; but theſe failed 'not to remind him of them ſoon after the dreſſing of his ſkull, by 'an almoſt inability to walk for a few days after.'—The ſtory contains the Adventures of a couple of true *Lovyers*, in indigent circumſtances; the Lady, obliged to go to ſervice; the Gentleman, in queſt of fortune, to the Eaſt-Indies. After ſome viciſſitudes, they at length meet again; wallow in riches; and the Lady lives to this day under her huſband's *wing*, as we are told, in Glouceſterſhire. Where we ſhall leave them in the full enjoyment of all the felicity that a bounteous *Author* can beſtow.

* Vide the firſt article in the Catalogue for May, 1757.

Art. 5. *The Fair Citizen; or, the real Adventures of Miſs Charlotte Bellmour. Written by herſelf.* 12mo. 2s. Lownds.

As Miſs Bellmour is now happily married, to the very agreeable Mr. Frankly, we would not interrupt her preſent felicity, by any ſtrictures upon her Authorſhip. But we muſt beg leave to offer her one hint, at parting, which ſhe may profit from, if ſhe does not too much miſtake her talents; viz. that one good Pudding is worth fifty modern Romances.

Art. 6. *Linguæ Britannicæ vera Pronunciatio: or, a new Engliſh Dictionary; containing,* I. *An Explanation of all Engliſh Words uſed by the beſt Writers; the various Senſes of each Word being diſtinctly pointed out by Figures,* 1, 2, 3, *&c.* II. *The Language from which each Word is derived.* III. *The Part of Speech to which it belongs.* IV. *A Supplement of upwards of four thouſand proper Names. In which every Word has not only the common Accent to denote the Emphaſis of the Voice, but, in order to a juſt Pronunciation, every Syllable is marked with a long or ſhort Accent, to determine its Quantity; and the quieſcent Letters, various Sounds of Vowels, &c. are ſo diſtinguiſhed, that any Perſon, Native or Foreigner, who can but read, may ſpeedily acquire an accurate Pronunciation of the Engliſh Language. To the whole is prefixed, a Diſſertation on the Species of Sound, &c. with practical Obſervations on the various Powers and Formations of the Letters. A Work entirely new, and deſigned for the Uſe of Schools, and of Foreigners, as well as Natives, who would ſpeak, read, and write Engliſh with propriety and accuracy.* By James Buchanan. 8vo. 5s. Millar.

That part of this work which is really new, viz. the Author's attempt to teach foreigners, or children, the true pronunciation of the Engliſh language, merely by the help of this Dictionary, will not, we fear, meet with the deſired ſucceſs; firſt, becauſe the Author himſelf does not ſeem to be thoroughly acquainted with the Engliſh Pronunciation; and, ſecondly, as the ſcheme is in its own nature impracticable.

The French is a language rather more eaſily pronounced than ours, yet he who would pretend to ſpeak with any juſtneſs, merely from having ſtudied books upon the ſubject, will find himſelf, when he comes to converſe with the natives of that country, as much at a loſs as he who from long conſidering the properties of ſounds, or the nature of harmony, ſhould attempt to give his audience a regular Concerto on the organ. Beſides, the Author ſhould, to inſtruct foreigners in the manner of ſounding our alphabet, compare the letters in ours with thoſe in ſome foreign tongue; as, for inſtance, he ſhould have told

told a ſtranger, that our *a* was ſounded ſomething like the French *é*, our *e* like their *i*, &c. but he only compares the vowels of different countries by Engliſh ſounds, which can give a foreigner no information. If it be ſaid, that this Dictionary may aſſiſt an Engliſhman in teaching a foreigner our pronunciation, we have only to remark, that the title-page intimates the Dictionary to be *alone* ſufficient, without a Maſter. But to wave this objection; we imagine this book will afford but ſmall aſſiſtance, even to the Teacher, becauſe, as hath been already obſerved, Mr. Buchanan himſelf does not ſeem a competent judge of Engliſh Pronunciation. His quantities and accents are ſo wrongly placed, (whether thro' default of the preſs, we cannot determine) and ſo many words are directed to be pronounced after the Scotch manner, that they who would erect this Dictionary into a ſtandard for our manner of ſpeaking, would cauſe a greater ſchiſm (or as the Author would pronounce it *ſkiſm*) in language, than ever Neſtorius occaſioned in religion. He has altered our manner of ſpelling too; but all Makers of Dictionaries, and Spelling-books ſhould conſider, that, whatever they may be pleaſed to ſtile themſelves, they are the Servants, not the Maſters of Language; and that their only buſineſs is to give us the language as they found it,—not to form a new one.

Art. 7. *The Biſhop of Clogher's Speech, made in the Houſe of Lords, in Ireland; for omitting the Nicene and Athanaſian Creeds out of the Liturgy, &c. February* 2, 1756. *Taken in Short-hand, at the Time when it was ſpoken, by* D. S. 8vo. 6d. Baldwin, &c.

The eſtabliſhed explanation of the Doctrine of the Trinity, as delivered in the Nicene and Athanaſian Creeds, has long been *diſliked* by many others, beſides the learned Prelate whoſe Speech upon that controverted ſubject is now before us. But as a bare *diſlike* of any doctrine, is not of itſelf a ſufficient reaſon for the *rejection* of it, we could have wiſhed that his Lordſhip had been ſomewhat more explicit in ſhewing the agreement or diſagreement of the abovementioned doctrine with Scripture:—the only true ſtandard whereby we can, in any meaſure, judge of points ſo far beyond the reach of human underſtanding as that under our preſent conſideration moſt undoubtedly is. We ſhall not, therefore, in this place pretend to determine upon the merits of ſuch a ſubject; but ſhall barely lay before our Readers the moſt material part of what is advanced thereon by his Lordſhip, without any reflections of our own.—After having objected *ſome* things even to the Nicene Creed, he proceeds, page 18, to direct his *chief* force againſt the Athanaſian, in the following words.

'As to the Athanaſian Creed, as that is a ſuperſtructure built upon 'the foundation of the Nicene Creed, it is not only liable to all the 'objections, which can be made againſt that, but has alſo many bleſ'miſhes of its own to anſwer for; ſince it has not ſo much as the au'thority of a Council to ſupport it, but is now a known forgery, de-

'tected by the criticiſms of the learned Voſſius, and cannot be traced 'within two hundred years of the time of Athanaſius.

'But, then it may probably be aſked, how comes it to bear the 'name of Athanaſius? The anſwer to which is, becauſe it agrees 'perfectly with the Athanaſian doctrine; and had the name of Atha- 'naſius affixed to it by the church of Rome, becauſe he was a perſon 'much eſteemed by that church; and whoſe principles, as well po- 'litical as religious, the members of that church have long laboured 'to propagate among mankind. But, as the true character of this 'Athanaſius is not commonly known; and therefore, ſome of your 'Lordſhips may poſſibly be unacquainted with it, I ſhall beg leave to 'inform you who, and what he was.

'Athanaſius was a young, forward, petulant Deacon in the church 'of Alexandria, of an ambitious ſpirit, with a talent fitted for diſputa- 'tion. And as he could have no hopes of getting into that Biſhoprick, 'unleſs he could drive Arius out of Alexandria, who was the princi- 'pal Presbyter in that church next to the Biſhop; this he effected, by 'fomenting this diſpute about the Trinity, between Arius and the 'Biſhop; on which account, having got Arius excommunicated, he 'had him then baniſhed out of Alexandria. Which, when done no 'ſooner was the old Biſhop Alexander dead, but Athanaſius, though 'then only a young man, of about twenty-ſeven or twenty-eight 'years of age, by the aſſiſtance of a ſet of murdering Aſcetics, forced 'himſelf at once into that high Archbiſhoprick, without ever paſſing 'through any of the intermediate degrees. And, having gotten him- 'ſelf illegally conſecrated, contrary to all the rules and canons of 'the church, he prevailed on the Emperor Conſtantine to confirm 'him therein, by the power of bribes, that were given to one of the 'Emperor's favourites. And no ſooner was he thoroughly eſtabliſh- 'ed in it, but he immediately flew in the Emperor's face. And when 'the Emperor Conſtantine the great was dead, treated his ſon and 'ſucceſſor Conſtantius, with more contempt and inſolence than could 'have been borne from an equal. And when he was diſpoſſeſſed of 'his Biſhoprick for other irregularities, by a numerous Council of 'Biſhops, regularly ſummoned and aſſembled, he forced his way into 'that See again, more than once or twice, over the murdered corpſes 'of his antagoniſts; and waded into his cathedral, through ſeas of 'blood.

'But it may, perhaps be further aſked, Why ſhould this recom- 'mend him to the See of Rome? The reaſon of which is, becauſe 'this was all done by the connivance, and with the concurrence of 'that See: Athanaſius, while he treated all the reſt of mankind, and 'even his own royal maſter, with the utmoſt inſolence, having paid 'a ſervile court to the papal Chair. Inſomuch, that in the books of 'the canon-law, the firſt precedent that is, or can be produced, in 'ſupport of the papal Supremacy, is this inſtance of the ſervile ſub- 'miſſion that was paid by Athanaſius to Pope Julius. And therefore, 'I ſhould apprehend, that all Proteſtants, who have renounced the 'Supremacy of the Pope, and the indepency of the Church upon

'the

'the State, ought to be for obliterating the name of Athanaſius out 'of their Liturgy, into which it was probably inſerted, only with 'a view of recommending his political principles, under the ſhelter 'and influence of his religious doctrines.—

'My Lords, I deſire you will be ſo good as to obſerve, that I have 'not take upon me to ſay, that the doctrine contained in the Athana-'ſian Creed is falſe; I only ſay, it is not plainly and clearly reveal-'ed. Nor, do I preſume to condemn thoſe, who think they have 'evidence ſufficient to juſtify their being peremptory, and poſitive, 'in the ſupport of it. I judge no man; and only ſay, it contains 'a doctrine of ſo nice, ſo diſputable, and ſo metaphyſical a nature, 'as is hardly fit to be treated on in the ſchools; but is, I am certain 'by no means ſufficiently revealed to be made the ſubject of a Creed 'which is commanded by public authority to be read by the Miniſter 'and repeated by the people, in the public ſervice of the church, 'where the low, as well as the high, are ordered to aſſemble them-'ſelves; and which ſhould be, according to St. Paul, not to doubt-'ful diſputations, but that they may with one mind, and one mouth, 'glorify God, even the Father of our Lord Jeſus Chriſt.

'But, my Lords, let us now, on the contrary, only for argu-'ment's ſake, ſuppoſe, that the doctrine contained in the Athanaſian 'Creed is wrong; and, unleſs the Author of it was infallible, there 'is a poſſibility that it may be ſo; and then let us conſider what 'would be the conſequence——I dread to name it; as it would be 'no leſs than blaſphemy——For, if the Father, and the Son, have 'not from all eternity been conſubſtantial, and co-equal, the aſſertion 'of that propoſition would be blaſphemy.

'My Lords, I will own freely to your Lordſhips, that it is the 'dread and terror of a wrong determination, in a point of ſo delicate 'a nature, that makes me ſolicitous for having this Creed removed 'out of our Liturgy. In a matter of ſuch great conſequence, and 'where the honour of God the Father is ſo nearly concerned, I own, 'that I am fearful how I put any other Being, or Perſon, upon a le-'vel with him.'——For the reſt of the good Prelate's argument's againſt this generally exploded Creed, we refer to the pamphlet.

Art. 8. *The Complete Planter and Cyderiſt: or, a new Method of Planting Cyder-Apple, and Perry Pear-Trees; and the moſt approved Ways of making Cyder. In two Parts.—Part* I. *Shewing among other Particulars, how thouſands of Acres on the Sides of barren Hills, and other waſte Grounds, may be converted into fruitful Orchards, at a ſmall Expence. How Apple and Pear-Trees may be made to grow to Perfection in Half the uſual Time. How to manage an Orchard, that it ſhall never miſs Bearing, &c. Part* II. *How to make Cyder and Perry, various Ways. as practiſed in Devonſhire and Herefordſhire, &c. How to Diſtil Cyder Spirits; with a Propoſal for making a ſtrong-bodied Cyder, as a noble Antiſcorbutic, for*

the Service of his Majeſty's Navy, &c. By William Ellis, of Little Gaddeſden in Hertfordſhire. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Reeves.

What we ſaid on the publication of a ſimilar pamphlet, entitled the *Complete Cyderman*, Review, vol. X. page 393, may be applied to the preſent occaſion.

Art. 9. *Old Engliſh Valour: Being an Account of a remarkable Sea-Engagement, Anno* 1591. *Written by Sir* Walter Raleigh, *Knt.* 8vo. 6d. Baldwin.

This re-publication of the celebrated engagement, in which Sir Richard Greenville ſo gallantly, or, rather, ſo deſperately, defended the ſhip Revenge, againſt *fifteen* Spaniſh men of war, was extremely well judged, in theſe degenerate days, in which it is to be feared there are yet ſome Byngs remaining among us: to whoſe cowardice we poſſibly might, in time, become too much familiarized, and reconciled*, were it not for the remembrance of the Greenvilles, the Blakes, and the Benbows of former days.

* Thoſe who think this improbable, are only deſired to reflect on the numerous advocates the late Admiral Byng found, among a people whoſe anceſtors, far from oppoſing the puniſhment due to his crime, would have bluſhed at the bare mention of ſuch behaviour, in an ENGLISHMAN, as he had been guilty of.

Art. 10. *A true Portrait of the E****** N*****, drawn by a M——n* CAVALIER. *To which is added, a ſketch of ſome* GREAT ALTERATIONS. Folio. 6d. No Publiſher.

By E with ſix ſtars, and N with five, we are to underſtand the *Engliſh Nation*; and M——n Cavalier, means *Minorcan Cavalier*. The *true Portrait* is a general libel upon the People and Government of England; and the *great Alterations* are the improvements made in the iſland of Minorca and fort of St. Philip, ſince the Engliſh were driven thence, in 1756. The deſign of this laſt part is, plainly, to compliment the preſent poſſeſſors of that important place; and, by the ſtrength of the contraſt, to increaſe the odium here intended againſt the Engliſh, who are repreſented both as tyrants and fools.—It were well if the anonymous Writer had not too much foundation for the hard things he has ſaid of us.

POLITICAL.

Art. 11. *An Account of Facts which appeared on the late Enquiry into the Loſs of Minorca, from authentic Papers. By the* Monitor. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Scott.

The ingredients of this compoſition are, 1. The Reſolutions of the Houſe of Commons; 2. Such excerpts out of the Government-advices, laid before the ſaid Houſe, as the Compiler thought moſt for his purpoſe; 3. Liſts of the Engliſh and French ſquadrons; and 4. Obſervations and Concluſions tending to eſtabliſh a belief, that this

Account

Account is of more conſequence to the public, than the ſaid *Enquiry* was ever meant to be.

In his Introduction he has the boldneſs to expreſs himſelf in theſe words. 'It is true an Enquiry was, after many difficulties, begun, 'and the State-papers relating to the equipment of the French in their 'ſeveral ports, during the time of their preparations againſt the Britiſh dominions, were produced in the Houſe of Commons. But 'by the ſame means which have ſo often influenced the Members of 'that auguſt Aſſembly, to grant the people's money without meaſure, the Managers for the late Miniſtry have endeavoured to ſtifle all further examination into their conduct by the ſaid reſolutions.' In page 129 he alſo ſays; 'the leaſt attention to the nature 'of all theſe intelligences concerning an invaſion, will *find*, that 'there was not *near* the ſame certainty of a reſolution to make a deſcent on Great-Britain, as there was on Minorca.' And coming to wind up his bottom, he labours hard to involve the Adminiſtration in all the blame which the Houſe of Commons had before acquitted them of. All the ſatisfaction therefore to be derived from this, and ſuch pieces as this, muſt be of the ſame nature with that which one receives from looking back to the place where one either ſlipt or fell: it is natural to do ſo, to be ſure, but nothing ſerviceable reſults from it. Minorca is ſtill in the hands of France; and the Enquiry is at an end. The documents, it is true, on which this after-examination is grounded, may ſerve as a bait to curioſity; but as to the uſe made of them by the Compiler, even an ordinary Reader will not think himſelf much benefitted by it.—His knowlege in political, nay, in party matters, ſeems to be very ſleader. The points moſt material to his own purpoſe, he has had but a very imperfect ſight of; and every body knows, there is no writing ſucceſsfully to the people, without maſtery of ſtile, and power of repreſentation.

Art. 12. *The Fall of Public Spirit. A Dramatic Satire, in two Acts.* 8vo. 1s. Cooke.

The antients have left us their Unities for the regulation of the Drama. Shakeſpear rejecting their rules, ſucceeded by ſubſtituting Nature; but our preſent Dramatiſt, not content with deſpiſing both Nature and Art, ſeems alſo to have reſolved to try what could be done by a deviation even from Common Senſe. His *Dramatis Perſonæ* are compoſed of OLD TIME, ANCIENT COURAGE, PUBLIC SPIRIT, HONESTY, COWARDICE, and other allegorical Perſonages. TIME is aſtoniſhed at the ſight of EFFEMINACY, who repreſents our *pigmy* countrymen of the preſent generation; and it is no wonder that old Gentleman ſhould be diſguſted at our no longer retaining the warlike appearance of our forefathers,—the rough whiſker, the ſun-burnt face, and homeſpun ſhirt: It is in vain to expect courage from men who no longer wear trunk-breeches!—When our Satyriſt talks of Prime Miniſters, and Nobles, and Ladies of Quality, he ſeems reſolved to give no quarter; well knowing how much we love to ſee the great folks roaſted: abuſing a Lord, and pumping a pick-pocket, are the undiſputed prero-

gatives of a Britiſh mob,—of which right worſhipful ſociety this Author ſeems the ſelf-delegated ſpokeſman.

Art. 13. *The Oculiſt. A Dramatic Entertainment of two Acts.* 8vo. 1s. Owen.

The deſign *moral*, but the execution *dull*. It is a ſort of an imitation of Mr Garrick's *Lethe*.

Art. 14. *Political Truths, humourouſly delineated, in a Letter from a young Gentleman in Town, to his Patriot Friend in the Country.* 8vo. 6d. Shepheard.

For a ſpecimen of this *young Gentleman's humour*, take the following paſſage, than which there is not a more humourous one in the whole pamphlet.—'I have too much reaſon to be aſſured, that we have too 'many Right Honourable Scoundrels, whoſe lowly practices degrade 'the dignity which accident beſtowed upon them, and give a ſanction 'to every predacious raſcal to plunder under the countenance of fa'ſhion, and ſtrut with audacious confidence in the ſphere of more ex'alted villainy.'—There, Reader! there's *humour* for you! The ſame extract alſo preſents ye a ſample of his political Truths; ſo that a further ſpecimen is unneceſſary. One *truth*, however, his production contains, and it deſerves notice: ſpeaking of himſelf, he candidly owns, page 20, 'my conception is too weak to comprehend our 'political myſteries;'—this confeſſion is fair, and honeſt: but it would have been honeſter ſtill, if he had put it into his title-page, inſtead of the lying pretence to humour, when there is nothing like it in the pamphlet.

Art. 15. *A ſhort Hiſtory of late Adminiſtrations, ſhewing their Spirit and Conduct; from whence it is made evident, that England is to be ſaved by the Virtue of the People only. In a Letter to the* Conſtituents. *By a Friend of the* Conſtitution. 8vo. 6d. Corbet.

It ſeems to have been the Author's deſign, in this Review of the ſeveral Adminiſtrations during the late and preſent reigns, to make his Readers

——————— ſincerely hate
All ****'s and Miniſters of State:

As Swift very bitterly, and, we believe, as ſincerely, expreſſes himſelf.

Art. 16. *An Epiſtle from Schah Huſſein, the dethroned Sophi of Perſia, in the Shades; to Na-zro-'din, Emperor of Indoſtan, at his Palace in the Neighbourhood of Dehli. Tranſlated from the Perſic by* W. P. Eſq; Folio. 6d. Kearſley.

A diſguiſed invective againſt a certain Prince, chiefly for his partial regard to the little province of *Han-Ering*, in preference to the noble Empire of *Perſia*.

Art.

POETICAL.

Art. 17. *A Supplement to the Works of Alexander Pope, Esq; containing such poems, letters, &c. as are omitted in the edition published by the Rev. Dr. Warburton.* 12mo. 3s. Cooper.

A bookseller's jobb, composed chiefly of some scraps, *supposed* to have been the late Mr. Pope's, and of an Essay on human life, written by Lord Paget, whose name we have seen in the title-page of an edition of this poem, printed in the year 1736. This piece the *honest* Editor has here given as Mr. Pope's:—will any other specimen of his ability or fidelity be required?

RELIGIOUS *and* CONTROVERSIAL.

Art. 18. *Remarks on Mr. Kennicott's Sermon, entitled,* Christian Fortitude, *&c. With a particular Examination of the Preface.* 8vo. 6d. Cooper.

This is one of the severest and most ill-natured criticisms we remember to have seen. Mr. Kennicott has answered it in an Appendix to the second edition of his sermon; in which he endeavours to make it appear, that the pamphlet published against him, 'contains more falsehoods than pages.'

Art. 19. *Advice to a Country Neighbour; or, Protestant Reasons against Popery. By a Gentleman.* 8vo. 6d. Norwich printed, by W. Chace.

This seemingly well-meant performance begins with a short superficial sketch of the progress of Christianity, from its institution to the time when Luther made a division from the Roman communion; which period naturally affords the Author an opportunity of examining the justice of such a separation, and defending it, by a plain though sensible refutation of the tenets and practices of the Papists.

MEDICAL.

Art. 20. *An Essay on the most effectual Means of preserving the Health of Seamen in the Royal Navy. Containing cautions necessary for those who reside in, or visit, unhealthy situations; with directions proper for the security of all such as attend sick persons in fevers. And an appendix of observations on the treatment of diseases in hot climates. By* James Lind, *M.D. Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians in Edinburgh.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. Millar.

This Essay is not the fanciful performance of a closet-projector. Dr. Lind has already given proofs of his knowlege of sea diseases, in his excellent treatise on the scurvy*; and this little piece is a further instance of his abilities in that way.

* See Review, Vol. XI. p. 433.

Most

Moſt of the methods our Author recommends, are aſcertained by his own experience; and ſuch of them as have not that ſanction, are the unſtrained conſequences of ſound medical principles.

In enquiries of this nature, which many gentlemen of ingenuity muſt often have made the ſubject of their ſerious conſideration, it cannot be expected that every method here propoſed ſhould be new: yet it muſt be remarked, that ſuch of them as are the moſt common, are neither ſufficiently known, conſidering their importance, nor yet generally practiſed.

As matters of phyſical conſequence depend upon the due obſervance of ſmaller circumſtances; ſo a detail of theſe circumſtances was not only unavoidable, but even neceſſary, in a work calculated to prevent and leſſen the many diſeaſes to which that brave part of our fellow ſubjects, the ſea-faring people, are expoſed. We ſhall not therefore preſume to epitomiſe this Eſſay; but after obſerving, that a marine prophylactic was a work hitherto unattempted, however important; and that Dr. Lind has in a great meaſure exhauſted the ſubject; we ſhall lay before our Readers what this Gentleman hath ſuggeſted for preventing the introduction of ſickneſs into our fleets, by means of the impreſſed men.

'In the equipment of a fleet there are two ſorts of men from 'whom ſickneſs may be apprehended, viz. ſailors impreſt after a long 'voyage from the Eaſt or Weſt Indies, or the coaſt of Guinea; and 'ſuch idle fellows as are picked from the ſtreets or priſons.

'The former are often deeply tainted with ſcorbutic, and other 'diſorders, which uſually break out upon a longer confinement and 'fatigue at ſea. The conſtitutions might, in this caſe, by proper 'care, be ſurpriſingly ſoon reſtored, and the men duly prepared for 'another voyage.

'From the latter ſet of men, there is danger of communicating 'infection to the whole fleet. That there is a diſeaſe of the moſt 'contagious nature, the produce of filth, poverty, and a polluted air, 'which ſubſiſts always in a greater or leſs degree in crowded priſons; 'and in all naſty, low, damp, unventilated habitations, loaded with 'putrid animal ſteams, is now well known, and has been too often 'fatally experienced, by taking ſuch contaminated perſons into 'our ſhips.

'With deference then to better qualified judges, I would beg 'leave to ſuggeſt, that the proper method to be taken to ſecure the 'future health of the impreſt ſailors, and to obviate the miſchiefs 'which might accrue from diſeaſed landmen, ſeems to be this.

'In the uſual deſcriptions of impreſt men, taken by the regulating 'captains, it would be proper to inſert their former way of life, the 'place of their late reſidence, the preſent ſtate of health; and, with 'regard to ſailors, the length and healthfulneſs of their laſt voyage. 'If in conſequence of this report, thoſe who are juſt arrived from a 'long and ſickly voyage, were directly allowed freſh proviſions, and 'ſufficient greens, in lieu of ſalted meats, a diet of this ſort continued

'for

'for at leaſt three weeks, would in all probability ſufficiently cleanſe 'and reſtore their conſtitution, and fit them for immediate ſervice.

'A different method may be neceſſary to be taken with impreſſed 'landmen. A guard-ſhip is uſually ſtationed at the Nore, to receive 'thoſe who are taken up in London. But experience has ſhewn how 'fatal ſhe has often proved to the health and lives of many ſeamen; 'and that this ſhip has become a ſeminary of contagion to the whole 'fleet. One diſeaſed perſon from the ſtreet, or cloaths from a priſon, 'have often conveyed infection on board, which it has been extreme-'ly difficult afterwards to get quit of. For the confined and cor-'rupted air in a large crowded ſhip, greatly favours the ſpreading of 'this contagion, and the exertion of its utmoſt malignity. From this 'ſource, the environs of Portſmouth and Plymouth have more than 'once been annoyed, with an almoſt peſtilential contagion, which cer-'tain regulations might, in all probability, have effectually prevented.

'For this purpoſe, a tender might be appointed in the river to re-'ceive ſuch men only as the regulating captains ſhould direct. There 'the moſt ragged and ſuſpicious perſons ſhould remain for at leaſt 'fourteen days, where their old cloaths may be deſtroyed, and new 'ones given them; and their perſons being well purified and cleanſed, 'they would thus be prevented from carrying rags, filth, and infec-'tion on board the King's ſhips.

'The precaution of deſtroying the cloaths of all ſuch who are 'brought from Newgate, or other ſuſpected places, ought not to be 'neglected; becauſe, although fourteen days is a ſufficient time to 'diſcover whether a perſon is free from the taint, yet we cannot 'preciſely determine how much time may be neceſſary to purge their 'apparel from this contagion. Woollen cloaths are diſpoſed to re-'tain it a conſiderable time; nor is there any other effectual ſecurity 'againſt the ſeeds of infection lurking in garments, than their abſo-'lute deſtruction.

'It may be proper further to obſerve, that when a tender arrives 'with impreſſed men at the Nore, from any part of Great Britain 'or Ireland, and the men having been long confined, under cloſe-ſhut 'hatch-ways, during bad weather, or in ſummer-time, they may be 'ſuppoſed to have ſuffered by the polluted air, which will be in pro-'portion to their number, and the time of their confinement; in ſuch 'a caſe, the ſick ought to be ſent on board the foul tender, or ra-'ther into a lazaretto, or well-aired place on ſhore; where alſo the 'men ought to be ſent without delay, who fall ill on board the tender. 'If it ſhould happen, that this veſſel becomes infected, the method 'of purifying her will be delivered in the ſecond ſection of this Eſſay.

This work is divided into two ſections, with an appendix. In the firſt ſection Dr. Lind explains, at great length, the methods proper to prevent the generation of ſickneſs on ſhip-board: and in the ſe-cond, thoſe precautions which are moſt likely to ſtop the ſpreading of contagious diſtempers, when bred, are fully enumerated. The ap-pendix contains ſome good remarks upon blood-letting, and the other means of treating acute diſeaſes in hot climates. The language is in gene-

general not quite ſo ſcientific as that of his treatiſe on the ſcurvy; but then it ought to be conſidered, that this Eſſay is intended not only for the ſurgeons of the fleet, but for thoſe alſo who have the great truſt of ſuperintending the marine department: to whoſe ſerious peruſal we heartily recommend it.

Art. 21. *Obſervations on the internal Uſe of the Solanum, or Nightſhade. By* Thomas Gataker, *Surgeon to Weſtminſter-Hoſpital.* 8vo. 6d. Dodſley.

Dr. Friend takes notice, with a becoming applauſe, of the integrity of the antient phyſicians, 'that however credulous they ſometimes 'were, in imagining a more than ordinary force in what they called '*ſpecifics*, and magnified them beyond what they deſerved, yet they 'never made any *ſecrets* of them. They took pains to be thoroughly 'acquainted with their own art, and by that means were led into a 'ſenſe of the general good it was deſigned for: and therefore being 'above any views of little private intereſt, and acting up to the cha-'racter of their profeſſion, whatever they could find out by their own 'experience, or collect from the obſervations of others, which might 'relieve the diſtempers incident to their fellow creatures, they freely 'and generouſly made it public. This,' he adds, 'was the practice of 'the antients; and ought to be a perpetual model for their ſucceſſors, 'who would imitate them either in their knowlege or their virtues *.' The juſtice of this obſervation will ſcarce be controverted; but can it with truth be ſaid, that a due regard hath always been paid to it? Not to mention the numerous charlatanical noſtrum-mongers, which the preſent enterpriſing age has produced, may there not be reaſon to apprehend, that the progreſs of the art of healing has been retarded by the indolence of ſome, and by the avarice of others, even its legitimate profeſſors?

However, that the moderns are not deſtitute of able practitioners, equally aſſiduous in their reſearches, and liberal of their knowlege, we have had abundant proofs in the courſe of our undertaking: among whom, if we particularly diſtinguiſh Dr. Ruſſel, it is rather for the ſake of reciting † his juſt remark, 'that it is to be wiſhed, that phy-'ſicians would communicate more freely even the leaſt obſervations 'which they make in the *Materia Medica*; for theſe, however ſmall 'they may appear to be, are yet ſo many gems placed in the diadem 'of medicine, that poſterity will look upon with gratitude.' From a perfect acquieſcence in this ſentiment, we were pleaſed with having the *firſt* opportunity of bringing the *Engliſh* Reader acquainted with the happy effects of the ſolanum, as they were experienced by Dr. Lambergen, in a diſtemper, than which human nature knows none more deplorable ‡.

That a ſingle inſtance of the ſucceſs of any particular medicine, much leſs of a plant univerſally acknowleged to be, in the higheſt degree, deleterious, is not ſufficient to entitle it to a general reception, muſt be admitted; but at the ſame time, it may, with equal reaſon,

* Hiſt. of Phyſic, 4th edition, 8vo. Vol. I. p. 97.
† See Review, Vol. IX. p. 198. ‡ Review, Vol. XVI. p. 147.

be

be aſſerted, that its firſt ſucceſs ſhould recommend it to further experience. Indeed, ſkill and caution are alike neceſſary in conducting the ſubſequent trials of ſuch a medicine, and the ſtricteſt candour and fidelity ought to be obſerved in relating the events of ſuch experiments.

Hence it is, that as we cannot but approve an impartial enquiry into the real virtues of the ſolanum, ſo we cannot help commending the method in which this enquiry appears, in the publication before us, to have been purſued. Every prerequiſite proviſion ſeems to have been judiciouſly attended to in adminiſtring it, and every neceſſary circumſtance in communicating its effects. The caſes in which Mr. Gataker informs us he has tried the operation of this plant, beſides two cancerous caſes, 'were foul ulcers, obſtinate pains in particular 'parts of the body, ſcorbutic eruptions, and other common diſorders:' from theſe he found, 'that ſo ſmall a quantity as one grain 'weight of the leaf, infuſed in about an ounce of boiling water, and 'the liquor afterwards ſtrained from the leaf, and taken at bed-time, 'would ſometimes have a very conſiderable effect; but that two or 'three grains ſeldom fail either to vomit, ſweat, or purge the patient 'moderately, or to increaſe the quantity of urine. It ſometimes occa'ſioned a giddineſs, eſpecially when it made the patient ſick; but 'neither the ſickneſs nor giddineſs were conſtant ſymptoms; and 'when they happened, they generally abated, or entirely ceaſed, 'after the firſt doſe. The moſt common effects that he obſerved to 'enſue upon taking this medicine, were, a heat or warmth diffuſed 'in a few hours over the body, a plentiful ſweat ſucceeding this heat, 'and a purging the next day: if a ſweat did not break out, an extraordinary diſcharge of urine was the conſequence, and frequently 'followed likewiſe by a purging. One or more of the natural evacuations were almoſt always increaſed.'

Having thus given an account of the general effects of the Night-ſhade, he proceeds to a circumſtantial detail of ſome particular caſes; the two firſt of which were of a cancerous nature.—One of theſe was a woman about fifty years of age. She had a ſore under her right eye, as broad as half a crown, conſiſting 'of ſeveral indigeſted 'foul ulcerations, intermixed with callous eminences, or hard knots, 'riſing in particular parts of it, and the whole was encircled by an 'unequal jagged edge. Below the ſore, the cheek was diſcoloured 'by a deep red appearance.' The part had been very painful for ſeveral months, and the common methods had been ineffectually tried. In a month after taking the infuſion of ſolanum, the pain entirely ceaſed, and in another month 'the ulcerations were healed, 'and the calloſities ſubſided, leaving only a ſlight ſoreneſs, or tenderneſs of the ſkin, with two or three ſcurfy inequalities in the upper 'part of it. No application was uſed to the ſore, except common 'ſoftning dreſſings, to keep it from the air.'—

'The medicine in this inſtance occaſioned at firſt a ſickneſs and giddineſs, producing a plentiful ſweat in the night, and a moderate 'purging in the morning, with ſome increaſe of urine. It continued 'to ſweat her conſiderably as long as ſhe took it, preſerving alſo in 'general a lax ſtate of her bowels, and acting ſometimes as a diu-

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* retic. She never took more than an infuſion of two grains at a time.' The woman thought herſelf ſo well, that ſhe would not be reſtrained from returning to her family in the country; ſince when our Author has had no account of her.

The other cancerous patient was a woman about ſeventy years of age; ſhe had 'a very large and bad looking ſore on her left breaſt, 'with callous edges ſurrounding the ulcer, and hardneſſes in 'other parts. This complaint began above a year before, with a 'ſmall hard knot, which increaſing, broke into a ſore, and for ſome 'months, had gradually ſpread broader, and corroded deeper.' After a doſe or two of purging phyſic, the infuſion was given her, 'and 'in leſs than three months, uſing only common applications to the 'part, the ſore was reduced to a very inconſiderable ſize, without 'any remaining hardneſſes at the edges of it, and had the appearance 'of healing in a week or ten days. The hardneſſes about the breaſt 'were likewiſe diminiſhed. In this ſituation ſhe was affected with 'complaints * that induced our Author to ſuſpend the uſe of the 'infuſion. During this interval, the ſurface of the ſore enlarged, 'and grew foul again.' Loſs of appetite, and a general weakneſs of body, joined to her age, affording no hopes of ſucceſs from a repetition of the medicine, ſhe died.—The medicine made this woman at firſt giddy, and ſweated her very conſiderably. It continued to ſweat her moderately, but did not operate on her by ſtool or urine; and ſome time before ſhe left off taking it, no viſible alteration was produced in any of the natural evacuations, though the doſe was increaſed to five grains.

In both theſe caſes the *garden*-nightſhade was made uſe of, as it likewiſe was to the two former of the ſix other patients, the hiſtory of whoſe diſorders Mr. Gataker relates.—The firſt of theſe was a woman of thirty-five years old, who was afflicted with 'a very great inflammation and ſwelling of her foot, leg, and knee, attended with a fever, 'beſides a very large ſore on the lower part of the leg, which began 'two years before, and had gradually been growing worſe. The ſore 'had the moſt malignant appearance, diſcharged a great deal of a 'ſharp, thin humour, and was extremely painful.' The ſwelling and inflammation had conſiderably abated, but the ſore had extended itſelf from the lower part of the calf to the heel, and from one ankle to the other, ſometimes attended with a very intenſe fever, and violent purgings, with other ſymptoms, that left very little hopes of recovery. She had been confined to her bed for five months, unable to feed or help herſelf, and for the laſt ſix weeks could not get an hour's ſleep at any one time, from the violent pains ſhe felt in her head and limbs.—The next patient was a man, ſixty-eight years of age, who about five months before had received a violent bruiſe on his loins and hips, by falling from a conſiderable height, as he was carrying a load, under

* In the ſecond edition of this pamphlet, which appeared about three weeks after the firſt, Mr. Gataker informs us, that 'ſhe was at-'tacked with feveriſh complaints, a ſlight difficulty of breathing, and 'an inflammatory ſwelling on her left hand.' He here alſo takes an opportunity of rendering his other caſes more complete.

which

which he was preſſed, and his body bent double. After recovering from this accident, he was ſeized with ſuch violent pains in his back and knees, that he was unable to ſtand upright, or to walk, but with difficulty, nor could he attempt to bend his knees without great pain.—The third caſe is of a middle-aged man, with a ſwelling and ſeveral painful ſores on one of his legs. To him, and the three ſucceeding patients, the *deadly* nightſhade was uſed; but what renders this caſe more remarkable is, that the doſe was increaſed from one grain to twelve, without producing any ſickneſs, or giddineſs.—The fourth patient was a girl about ſixteen, with a large ſcrophulous ſore on one of her thighs, which had been troubleſome to her for ſeveral months; and another on her foot, with an enlargement of the bones of the foot.—The fifth caſe is of a young woman, with a large ſore on her leg, tending to a mortification, and another painful ſore under her arm. Theſe were not without difficulty brought to a better ſtate, but ſtill there remained an obſtinate ſmall ulcer, on which no application had any effect, and during the laſt two months her body was covered with a ſcorbutic eruption.—The ſixth and laſt patient here mentioned, is a man with ſeveral large wounds on his leg, made by the bite of a leopard. The leg was much ſwelled and inflamed, attended with a ſymptomatic fever. In a few days after he was ſeized with a violent pain in the ſhoulder, arm, hand, thigh, leg, and foot of the oppoſite ſide, ſo that he was unable to move theſe parts; nor was he much more capable of motion in the wounded ſide, having a conſiderable pain in that ſhoulder, arm, and hand.

Such as are deſirous of knowing the particular circumſtances attending the adminiſtration of this medicine in theſe ſeveral caſes, are referred to the pamphlet; ſuffice it for us to obſerve, that in every one of them its ſanative effects were aſcertained. 'Whether there is any 'ſpecific property in this plant, either for the cure, or the alleviation 'of cancerous diſorders; or whether its efficacy may be more particularly uſeful in the removal of other diſeaſes,' our Author modeſtly declines determining: 'but conſidering the powers this ſimple production of nature has on the common diſcharges of the body, and from 'reflecting how trifling a quantity of it, infuſed only, and the ſubſtance not taken, is capable of producing theſe great effects,' he is not unreaſonably, 'led to imagine, that an extenſive uſe may 'be made of this medicine as a powerful promoter of moſt of the 'natural diſcharges of the body, excluſive of any ſpecific properties, 'which, by future obſervations, may be found with certainty to reſide in it.'

With reſpect to the adminiſtration of this medicine, Mr. Gataker obſerves, that as it acts, like all others of great efficacy, very differently in different conſtitutions, 'it may not be amiſs, perhaps, in ſome 'caſes, to begin with half a grain, and repeat the doſe ſooner, or 'increaſe the quantity of it occaſionally, according as it operates and 'agrees, and according to the ſtrength of the patient, and the nature 'or ſtate of the diſeaſe.' To this he adds the following premonitions:—'If the patient is hot and thirſty in the night, after taking the infuſion, ſome ſmall diluting liquor ſhould be provided, to drink 'warm, and encourage a diſcharge by perſpiration or urine.—If coſ-

'tiveneſs prevails, though the medicine generally has the oppoſite 'effect, this circumſtance muſt be particularly attended to.—In ſome 'full or ſanguine conſtitutions, a purge, and the loſs of ſome blood, 'may be neceſſary before the infuſion is given.'

A ſhort account of the ſeveral purpoſes to which the different ſpecies of nightſhade have been heretofore applied, is ſubjoined; but having already allowed more room to this than we uſually do to performances of the ſame ſize and prine, we apprehend no apology to be neceſſary for diſmiſſing the obſervations on this head, with only doing a piece of juſtice to one of our own countrymen. It is here remarked, from Beyerſtein, that the efficacy of the Dulcamara, or *woody* nightſhade, in purifying the blood, was unknown till Linnæus made uſe of the ſtalks. Now it is certain, that the induſtrious Dr. Fuller *, fifty years ago recommended the ſame medicine for the ſame purpoſe. He directs four ounces of the green twigs of this plant (cut like ſarſaparilla) to be infuſed hot and cloſe all night in a quart of white wine, and ſix ounces to be taken twice, or four ounces thrice, a day. 'It is, ſays he, 'a ſingular experiment in a contuſion, for it diſſolves extra-'vaſated clots of gore after a marvellous manner, drives it again into 'the circulating maſs of blood, and there, partly by *diaphoreſis*, 'partly by *diureſis*, and ſometimes by *purging*, throws it out of the 'body. It operates ſo powerfully, and ſpecifically, that upon the 'uſe of it, I have ſometimes, not without aſtoniſhment, obſerved 'black urine, which I ſuppoſed was made ſo by clots of blood diſſolv-'ed, abſorbed, and mixed in with the ſerum.'

Upon the whole, we muſt be of opinion, that excluſive of the poſſible advantages the public may reaſonably expect from the adoption of this medicine, the profeſſion are under particular obligations to Mr. Gataker, for thus endeavouring to reſcue it from becoming another reſort of Empiriciſm.

* See the traumatic infuſion in his *Pharmacopœia Extemporanea*.

SERMONS *ſince our laſt Liſt in the* Review *for* April.

1. *UNION.* Preached at the Cathedral, Wells, Feb. 20, 1757, on account of the late Faſt. By Francis Potter, M. A. Rector of Weſt-Camel, and Prebendary of Wells. 8vo. 6d. Rivington.

2. *The Goſpel not abſurd, not contrary to juſtice, nor licentious;* preached April 13, 1557, in Great Eaſt-cheap, to the Society who ſupport the Wedneſday Evening Lecture in that place. By John Brine. 8vo. 6d. Ward.

3. At Monk's-Kirby, Warwickſhire, Feb. 11, 1757. By James Ancell, Curate. 8vo. 6d. Baldwin.

4. *The Duty of Faſting, with its appendages, conſidered,*—at St. Peter in the Eaſt, Oxon, Feb. 11, 1757. By James Snowden, D. D. Fellow of Merton College, and Miniſter of the ſaid pariſh. 8vo. 6d. Rivington and Fletcher.

5. Before the Sons of the Clergy, at St. Paul's, April 28, 1757. By Gloceſter Ridley, L. L. B. Miniſter of Poplar. To which is annexed, a liſt of the collections for this charity, from 1721. 4to. 6d. Whiſton.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For AUGUST, 1757.

A Methodical Synopsis of Mineral Waters, comprehending the most celebrated Medicinal Waters, both cold and hot, of Great-Britain, Ireland, France, Germany, and Italy, and several other Parts of the World. Wherein their several impregnating Minerals being previously described, and their Characteristics investigated, each Water is reduced to its proper Genus; and besides the particular Analysis, the Virtues, Uses, and Abuses of the Waters are described in a Method entirely new. Interspersed with Tables, tending to throw a Light upon this intricate Subject; and Abstracts of the principal Authors who have treated of Mineral Waters; and the Accounts dispersed in the Acts of most of the learned Societies in Europe, are collected and properly digested. By John Rutty, M. D. 4to. 1l. 1s. Johnston.

THIS work, which, at least, manifests its Author's assiduity and perseverance, is inscribed to Dr. Peter Shaw, Dr. Stephen Hales, and Dr. Thomas Short, as *competent Judges* of its merit. The general candour and abilities of these Gentlemen will hardly be called in question; but perhaps the more severe Critic may object to the fitness of their passing sentence on a performance in which themselves are declared to be *Coadjutors*. As to ourselves (tho' not willing to suppose that Dr. Rutty expected, or intended, by this address, to preclude or anticipate the opinion of every one upon his performance, except the particulars to whom he has thus made his appeal) let it suffice that we

lay before our Readers, in the Doctor's own words, his profeſſed plan of operation, during this long campaign.

'In this inveſtigation,' ſays he, 'I have endeavoured, out 'of the great number of experiments that have been made, to 'ſelect a certain ſet of the moſt uſeful and eſſential, being con- 'tained in the Queries to be hereafter mentioned, and to ſub- 'ject the ſeveral Waters, and their ſolid contents, to the ſame 'experiments, to note the reſult, and from the ſimilar ſenſible 'qualities and congruous appearances uniformly ariſing upon 'their mixture with the ſame bodies, each Water is reduced 'to its proper denomination and genus; in order to which, it 'ſeemed to be ſufficient to have regard to the predominating 'Minerals only; for tho' there is ſcarce any Water but contains 'a diverſity of mineral ſubſtances, yet as ſome of them exiſt 'in ſo inconſiderable a proportion, that no activity can be juſt- 'ly aſcribed to them, it ſeems not worth while in ſettling the 'general denominations of Waters to have regard to them; 'v. g. there is ſcarce any Chalybeate Water without ſome mix- 'ture of ſulphur, marine ſalt, or nitre, but where theſe exiſt 'in ſo ſmall a proportion as not remarkably to affect the ſenſes, 'they are ſcarce worth conſidering; and ſo in the analyſis of 'the Pyrmont Water, what avails it to us to be told, that be- 'ſides iron, calcarious nitre, and earth (the principal minerals 'impregnating it, and from which its chief activity is to be de- 'rived) it alſo contains ſome particles of cryſtal, when, perhaps, 'the proportion of this cryſtal may be ſcarce one two thouſandth 'part of the vehicle. So the petrifying Waters, tho' they ge- 'nerally contain ſome mixture of ſulphur and nitre, are to be 'claſſed and denominated from the predominating ſparry or ter- 'reſtrial matter only; and the purging waters, which all derive 'their activity from the predominating ſalts, altho' they alſo 'contain a terreſtrial matter, are to be claſſed among the nitrous 'or ſaline Waters reſpectively; and ſo on.

'And where the ſolid contents of Waters conſiſt of more 'minerals than one, in quantities conſiderable enough to give 'them a ſhare in the operation and effects of the Waters, I 'have avoided running into too minute ſubdiviſions, as tending 'rather to perplex than inſtruct; and tho' the analyſis of many 'Waters might juſtify the uſe of ſuch ſeſquipedalian titles, as Cha- 'lybeo-nitroſo-ſalino-ſulphureo-terreous, and others like theſe, 'or longer, I induſtriouſly declined them, deeming it ſufficient, 'for the moſt part, to give the appellation from ſuch two prin- 'cipal minerals as ſeemed to have the chief ſhare in the opera- 'tion of ſuch Waters.

'Thus, whereas in order to throw as much light as poſſible 'on this complicated and intricate ſubject, I begin with ſimple

'Waters

'Waters (i. e. Waters that make the neareſt approach to pure element, none being abſolutely ſuch) I proceed in the ſecond book to treat of the ſimply nitrous, or ſtrictly ſpeaking, ſuch wherein the nitre predominates over any other principles; and the firſt ſubdiviſion of the nitrous Waters I call Nitroſo-ſaline, i. e. ſuch as beſides the nitre, contain alſo a notable quantity of marine ſalt, but ſo as that the nitre predominates over the ſalt; and the next ſubdiviſion of the ſame Waters I call Nitroſo-chalybeate, or ſuch wherein the nitre predominates over the ſteel; and the laſt Nitroſo or Nitro-ſulphureous, or ſuch wherein the nitre predominates over the ſulphur. This ſpecimen will ſuffice for explaining the meaning of other analogous titles given to other Waters; ſuch as the ſimply ſaline, the ſalino-nitrous, the ſalino-chalybeate, and the ſalino-ſulphureous; and in the book of Sulphureous Waters, of the diviſion into ſulphureo-nitrous, and ſulphureo-chalybeate Waters.

'In the examination of the ſeveral Waters, I have generally had in view the following Queries, and, for the moſt part, reſolved them; deeming ſuch a ſeries of experiments and obſervations, made in concert upon the ſeveral Waters, to be ſufficient to enable us to give ſome rational account of ſuch Waters whoſe operation and effects we are acquainted with by experience, and in ſuch on which few or no obſervations of their effects on the human bodies have been made; the reſolution of the reſt of the queries will, however, be of very great uſe to enable us to form conjectures, with the higheſt degree of probability alſo, concerning their nature, operations and effects.

'The Queries* on the *Waters themſelves* were as follow; 1. What is the colour, conſiſtence, taſte, and ſmell of any Water?—2. What is the ſpecific gravity?—3. Does it whiten, coagulate, or continue clear with the alcalies, as oil of tartar per deliquium, ſpirit of ſal ammoniac, or ſpirit of hartſhorn?—4. Does it exhibit a white cloud, curd, or ſediment, with the other precipitators commonly uſed on this occaſion, which are chiefly the ſolution of ſilver, the ſolution of ſugar of lead, the ſolution of alum, and lime-water?—5. Does it ferment with acids, as oil of vitriol, ſpirit of ſalt, or vinegar?—6. Does it curdle milk, the white of an egg, blood, or its ſerum, or ſaliva?—7. Does it curdle ſoap?—8. Does it redden beef or mutton, infuſed and then boiled with it?

* As the deſign of theſe reſearches is, it is apprehended, obvious to every intelligent medical or chemical Reader, we have omitted our Author's explanatory Notes relating to them.

'—9. What tinctures does it extract from galls, ſumach, or 'other auſtere vegetables; and from logwood, brazil, rhubarb, 'ſyrup of violets, and aſh-bark† ?—10. What colour does it 'impart to ſilver, gold, or copper immerſed; as alſo the ſolu-'tion of ſilver, of ſugar of lead, and of copperas?—11. What 'are its ſenſible effects, and operations, virtues, or vices, by 'obſervation and experience?

'The Queries on the *analyſis* of the Waters were as follows: '1. What are the parts into which any Water ſeparates ſpon-'taneouſly manifeſted chiefly in ſcum or ſediment?—2. What is 'the quantity of ſediment or reſiduum left upon the evaporation 'of a given quantity of the Water?—3. What is the colour, 'taſte, ſmell, and conſiſtence of the reſiduum?—4. Does it 'ferment with acids or alcalies?—5. Does it moiſten in the 'air?—6. What colour does it exhibit with ſyrup of violets? '—7. What are its appearances on the red-hot iron, or on 'coals?—8. Is it, or any part of it, attracted by the load-'ſtone, before or after calcination?

'The Queries *on the ſalt ſeparated from the terreſtrial mat-'ter.*—1. What is its colour, taſte, ſmell, and conſiſtence?—'2. Does it ferment with acids or alcalis; and does it excite 'an acid fume with oil of vitriol?—3. Does it moiſten in the air? '—4. Does it produce a coagulation when boiled with milk, 'in the proportion of half a dram to half a pint?—5. Does it 'turn green with ſyrup of violets?—6. Does the ſolution of the 'ſalt, made in the proportion of half a dram to half a pint of 'diſtilled Water, coagulate or keep clear with the ſolution of 'ſalt of tartar, or with ſpirit of ſal ammoniac, ſolution of a-'lum, ſolution of copperas, or ſolution of ſilver?—7. Does it 'excite an urinous ſmell when rubbed with ſal ammoniac, and 'and a red or yellow colour when rubbed with the ſolution of 'mercury ſublimate corroſive in water?—8. Does it excite an 'urinous or pungent ſmell when rubbed with ſalt of tartar?—'9. In what quantity of water is it diſſoluble?—10. Does it red-'den beef or mutton being rubbed on the raw fleſh, and after-'wards boiled?—11. What appearances does it exhibit on the 'red-hot iron?—12. What is the figure of its cryſtals?

'The Queries on the *indiſſoluble matter* left in the filtre.—'1. What is the proportion of its weight to that of the ſalt?—'2. What is its colour, taſte, ſmell, and conſiſtence?—3. Does 'it ferment with acids or alcalies?—4. What colour does it ex-'hibit with ſyrup of violets?—5. Does it ſparkle or flame on 'the red-hot iron, with or without ſmell, and with what ſmell?

† Aſh-bark is uſed by the Doctor as a ſuccedaneum for *lignum nephriticum.*

—6. What

'—6. What change does it undergo by burning in the crucible? Does it redden or whiten? Is it converted into lime? Does it fly to the loadſtone?

'This is the plan or ſet of experiments which I ſelected as the moſt eſſential in order to inveſtigate the mineral contents of each Water, and by which, for the moſt part, I examined forty different ſprings of ſoft Water, thirty-five of hard Water, ſeventy-one chalybeate ſprings, fourteen of the acid-vitriolic, twenty different baths and warm Waters, twenty-one of the Waters impregnated with the native alcali or natron, twenty-ſix of the Waters impregnated with calcarious nitre and its compoſitions, thirty ſaline Waters and their compoſitions, thirty ſulphureous, twelve bituminous, and ten petrifying; in all three hundred and nine different ſprings: a work of no ſmall labour and expence, which, however, it is hoped will be compenſated by the fruits of it, as this method of examining ſo great a number and variety of Waters in concert, muſt neceſſarily throw a far greater light on the ſubject, than only a few Waters ſolitarily examined, and enable us to ſettle the ſimilarity or ſpecific difference of the ſeveral Waters, and the diſtinguiſhing criteria of each, upon this principle, that whatſoever Waters affect all our ſenſes in the ſame manner, and exhibit the ſame appearances on their mixtures with the ſame bodies, muſt be of the ſame nature, and reducible to the ſame genus; to which if their ſimiliar virtues, as found out by experience, be found to correſpond, nothing would ſeem to be wanting to effect the deſign of this treatiſe, viz. the forming a methodical ſynopſis of Mineral Waters.'

Such is our induſtrious Author's own account of his labours, to which, we think, he has done no more than juſtice. In conducting his very numerous experiments he ſeems to have cloſely adhered to his plan; nor ought we in the leaſt to doubt his fidelity in relating their events. As the reſult of his diſquiſitions, he determines the ſeveral Mineral Waters, both at home and abroad, to be principally impregnated by the following foſſils, or different combinations of them.

'1ſt. The calcarious nitre, or the native ſal catharticum amarum, which impregnates moſt of our purging ſprings, and our common hard Waters in a leſſer degree, which has hitherto been confounded with alum, ſometimes with ſalt-petre, and ſometimes with the natron or nitre of the antients, but merely the diſtinguiſhing characters of each of theſe ſalts, and examining each Water accordingly. 2. The natron, or native alcaline ſalt, evidently traced in many of our Waters, as

'well as the foreign. 3. Marine ſalt diffuſed through many of our purging ſprings, and even hard Waters, and variouſly combined with the calcarious nitre, and other matters. 4. Alum, hitherto really found in very few Waters, tho' aſſerted to be preſent in many. 5. Vitriol, both martial and venereal, but eſpecially the firſt, which is diſtinctly exhibited in ſeveral of the Engliſh and Iriſh Waters, and the diſtinction of Mineral Waters into acidulæ and alcalulæ eſtabliſhed upon the proper evidences of each in their reſpective Waters. 6. A terreſtrial matter, for the moſt part of the ſparry, calcarious, abſorbent kind. 7. Iron. 8. Copper. 9. Sulphur. 10. Bitumen.'

Tho' a regular analyſis of this performance is not intended, (nor indeed would be practicable within the limits to which we are confined) the mention of a few particulars which occur in it may not be diſagreeable. We here learn, that Providence has not been leſs liberal in furniſhing our ſiſter-kingdom [Ireland] with medicinal ſprings, than ourſelves; the demonſtration of which appears not to have been the leaſt inducement to our Author's preſent undertaking. Dr. Rutty alſo agrees nearly with Dr. Ruſſel as to the contents of ſea-water, and has reſtored to it the bitumen and ſulphur, of which a modern Writer* on the ſame ſubject, thought fit to diveſt it. Nor is it only in this inſtance that our Author differs in opinion from the ſame Writer: the former inſiſts, that "Nature far from being confined to the lapis pyrites†, has abundant materials, and a great variety of them, to impregnate the Waters called Chalybeate and Vitriolic:" and particularly endeavours to prove the lapis Hibernicus a truely ferrugineous, vitriolic ore, mixed with a ſmall proportion of copper, and well adapted to communicate its qualities to Water: he likewiſe, contrary to the opinion of the latter, contends that ſulphur‡ is diffuſed thro' moſt or all Waters, tho' in different proportions, and not always diſcoverable with equal facility. Which of theſe Gentlemen are moſt in the right, may be left to the determination of others.

As the Doctor was obliged to compile his accounts of ſeveral foreign Waters from the writings of other Authors, he will not, we truſt, take amiſs the following additional obſervations on the Caroline Baths. By the extraordinary pains he appears to have taken in order to obtain every neceſſary information, and his ſilence in this particular reſpect, it is probable the efficacy of theſe Waters in diſeaſes of the kidnies and bladder, was not diſ-

* See Review, vol. XV. p. 205.
† Vid. ibid, p. 288.
‡ Ibid, p. 297.

covered

covered by thoſe he has conſulted on this occaſion. However, Stracher, in 1741, publiſhed a treatiſe*, to evince their utility in diſorders of this kind; ſince when, in the year 1749, Dr. Gottlob Charles Springsfield gave, in his vernacular language, a ſhort tract† on theſe baths, wherein he mentions a ſingle inſtance in which the Waters ſucceeded in diſſolving a ſtone of the bladder: want of *human calculi* prevented him then from purſuing his experiments; but at the ſame time he intimated a promiſe of reſuming them at the firſt convenient opportunity, and that he would communicate to the public the reſult of his reſearches.

This promiſe Dr. Springsfield diſcharged, the latter end of laſt year, in a Diſſertation‡ addreſſed to the Royal Society at London: in which Diſſertation it appears, that (from repeated experiments made not only by himſelf, but frequently in conjunction with M. Lieberkuhn, upon a variety of ſtones, and at different times) the lithontriptic efficacy of the Caroline Waters, was ſuperior by ſix degrees§ to that of Lime-water prepared with egg-ſhells freſh calcined. What contributes to make this phænomenon the more remarkable is, that theſe Waters actually poſſeſs a lapideſcent quality.

According to the laſt-named Author's analyſis of them, the principal contents of theſe Waters are, an alcaline ſalt, and a calcarious earth; Dr. Rutty aſcribes alſo to them a ſmall proportion of iron, which is not taken notice of by the former. However their petrifying property appears to be generally admitted; inſomuch that ſticks‖, ſtraws, rags, bones, &c. were, in the ſpace of one night, incruſted with a hard tophaceous matter,

* Diſſertatio Medica de thermarum Carolinarum uſu in renum et veſicæ calculo. 4to Lipſiæ.

† Abhandlung vom Carlſbade, Leipzig.

‡ Intitled Commentatio de prærogativa Thermarum Carolinarum in diſſolvendo Calculo veſicæ præ Aquâ Calcis vivâ. 4to. Lipſiæ. 1756.

§ Even the urine of ſuch as had drank the Waters regularly for ſome time, was found to have five times the effects of lime-water.

‖ Præmonere debeo omnia corpora dura, e. g. ligna, ſtramina, lina, oſſa, lapides, vaſa terrea, etc. incruſtari ab aquis Carolinis, adeo brevi quidem tempore, ut una nocte cruſta obducantur tophacea, quæ in dies augetur. Sed calculi veſicæ, licet corpora ſint duriſſima, non incruſtantur, quin potius diſſolvuntur, quod eo magis mirandum. Idem accidit *caſeo duriſſimo*, qui quoque dilabitur, et in pultem mutatur. Springsfield. ubi ſupra.

while, on the contrary, the firmeſt *human calculi* were rather diſſolved by the waters*, and the hardeſt *cheeſe* was reduced to a ſoft pulp.

Conſidering theſe are almoſt† the only two ſubſtances upon which the ſolvent power of theſe Waters hath been experienced, and in which they are found perfectly to agree, might it not contribute to throw ſome new lights upon this excruciating diſeaſe, to enquire whether there is any, and what, analogy between the conſtituent principles of cheeſe and the human Calculus? Dr. Liſter mentions the caſe of a child about nine years old, from whom a ſtone was afterwards extracted by the operation, whoſe urine, even at the time of excretion, was turbid, in appearance like whey, depoſited a white grumous matter, and effuſed a ſtrong *cheeſy*‡ ſmell: he alſo obſerves, that the patient had for ſome time before drank aſſes milk every morning, by the direction of his phyſicians.—Hence may not the utility of milk, or a milk-diet, not infrequently recommended in this complaint, be reaſonably ſuſpected?

But it is time to conclude this article; and perhaps it will be ſaid, we have already gone too far out of our proper province in ſtarting theſe ſuggeſtions. However, if they ſhould be found improveable, they will ſtand in need of no apology: and how far they are ſo, muſt be left to thoſe who have more ability, and more leiſure, for enquiries into nature, and her operations, than we pretend to aſſume.

* Dr. Springsfield obſerves, that ſtones found in the gall-bladder not only remained undiſſolved in theſe Waters, but were even incruſtated by them.

† The ſtony cruſt that frequently covers the teeth, was alſo obſerved to ſeparate and fall off, in thoſe who drank the Water.

‡ De fontibus medicatis Angliæ Exercitatio ſecunda, 1684.

§ Odor fracidus *Caſei* ab ejus urina nares vehementer feriebat. Ibid. p. 62.

Satirical Letters. Tranſlated from the German of G. W. Rabener, firſt Secretary to the Treaſury at Dreſden. 12mo. 2 vols. 6s. Linde.

AS humour, in writing, chiefly conſiſts in an imitation of the foibles or abſurdities of mankind, ſo our pleaſure in this ſpecies of compoſition, ariſes from comparing the picture in deſcription with the original in nature. In the works of our own countrymen we have frequent opportunities of making this compariſon, as the originals are generally before us; but when we

we read the productions of foreigners, as their portraits are copied from manners with which we are not ſufficiently acquainted, ſo they muſt often appear forced and unnatural. There is a caſt of humour, as well as of manners, peculiar to each country; and this is what makes every nation give the preference to its own Writers on humorous ſubjects. Nor is this preference ill founded; ſince the ſeveral drawings are made from originals widely different from each other: and as in portrait-painting, the value of the picture is enhanced by our connexions with the perſon who ſat for it, ſo here we moſt approve thoſe pieces the originals of which we are beſt acquainted with.

The work now under conſideration has certainly a vaſt fund of humour; but from the reaſons here aſſigned, the mere Engliſh Reader will think it often obſcure, ſometimes exaggerated, now and then unnatural. It has ſuffered much alſo from a bad tranſlation. The language of humour is in every country different from that which is uſed upon common occaſions. A ſingle word in Plautus or Moliere, or any Writer excellent in this way, ſhall expreſs more than the longeſt periphraſis that a Tranſlator, who has not a correſponding word in his language, could employ; and hence it happens that tranſlations from works of this ſort, are ſo generally unſucceſsful. Foreign Humour is an exotic of ſo delicate a nature, that it moſt frequently dies in tranſplanting. We ſee then in what a diſadvantageous light even a good Tranſlation muſt place a Cervantes, a Rabelais, or a Rabener; but ſhould an Author ſuffer his metamorphoſis from the hands of a perſon who ſeems a *ſtranger* to the language into which he tranſlates, the man of wit (ſo excellent in himſelf) inſtead of raiſing our admiration, or our mirth, will be apt to excite only our compaſſion.

The Writer of theſe Letters, however diſcovers ſuch an intimate acquaintance with human nature; his fools ſo delicately expoſe their own foibles by endeavouring to hide them; and humour, that neither time, nor place, nor language can alter, is ſo frequently to be found in him, that we fancy the generality of his Engliſh Readers will regret their not being able to peruſe him in his own language; or, at leaſt, that his Tranſlator was not able to do him juſtice in ours.

The deſign of theſe Letters the Author explains, in his Preface. 'After ſaying ſo much of Letters, their Authors, and 'other circumſtances incident to them, the Reader will ſuppoſe, 'that I intend a recommendation of myſelf and my Letters; 'and thus aſſume a privilege, too common among Authors, of 'delaying their own eulogium, till they have endeavoured to in'fuſe into the world an ill opinion of others. But very far am I from

'I from such an intention; myself and my collection I resign 'to the Reader's judgment, without either petition or parade. 'It may easily be thought, that, as an Author, I have too much 'sensibility to be indifferent about their verdict. The appro-'bation of judges elevates me; the approbation of others 'pleases me; my wish is, to be found fault with by neither, 'either with or without reason: I am not so hardened an Au-'thor, as to be easy about the censure of my Reader, whoever 'he be.

'The scope of my satyrical Letters is this; some observations 'I made on the foibles and vices of mankind, I have here il-'lustrated in Letters. And to render them more entertaining 'by variety, some parts are thrown into the form of a connect-'ed History: being all fictitious, there was no necessity for 'any particular concern about the titles. In this collection, I 'do not mean to put into my Readers hands, a set of forms to 'be used on other occasions. I could greatly wish, that we 'wrote as we think. In this case my collection would be ex-'tremely practicable, and I should acquire an infinite prefer-'ence above other Letter-Writers. But the custom of the 'world being to write quite otherwise than what we think, I shall 'be very well satisfied, if through my endeavours, and the exam-'ples I have given, only so much instruction be gained, as to 'understand a Letter, where the Writer thinks differently from 'what he has written.'

We shall present our Readers with a specimen of these Let-ters; at the same time cautioning them not to be disgusted at the formal titles with which the Correspondents honour each other; as the Germans are very ceremonious in this way.

After making some judicious observations on the neglect of parents in not providing proper Tutors for their children, he gives us the following Letters between a Nobleman and a Pro-fessor in an university.

'Worshipful Sir,

'My boys shoot up apace, so that it is high time to provide 'an able Tutor for them. Hitherto they have been under the 'care of a Schoolmaster; but now they are too much of the 'man for him. The great reputation in which you stand at 'Leipsic is not unknown to me: likewise that your hall is con-'tinually crowded with a swarm of servile creatures, begging 'that you will place them out as Preceptors or Tutors. Be so 'kind as to chuse me out an alert sprightly man. You know

'there

'there is no want at my houſe; both man and beaſt live in 'clover there. Frederic, the eldeſt, has all his paces, and is 'a perfect hero at a game of romps with the girls. I dare not 'let the young rogue know that I love him. He is not yet 'fourteen; has the Claſſics at his fingers ends, and is all arch-'neſs and ſpirit. Ferdinand is his mother's favourite. The 'poor boy is continually out of order: and the leaſt thing 'touches him to the quick. Nothing but ſoft words and mild-'neſs will do with him. And my wife has already turned off 'two ſervants for being too rough with him. My eldeſt daugh-'ter is in her twelfth year. I would have her firſt have a little 'ſmatch of her catechiſm, and then I will provide the little jade 'a huſband, to ſee what he can make of her. The Tutor will 'have nothing to do with my youngeſt daughter, ſhe is in Ma-'demoiſelle's hands. Now, my worthy Profeſſor, you ſee all 'that the Tutor will have to do: therefore I ſhall take it very 'kindly, if you will provide me with one for my purpoſe. All 'that I require in him is, that he be thoroughly grounded in 'Latin, neat in his dreſs, to ſpeak Italian and French in their 'purity, write a fine hand, be well verſed in the Mathematics, 'have a ſmattering of poetry, underſtand dancing, fencing, 'and riding; and I could alſo wiſh him to know ſomething of 'drawing. Hiſtory, you are ſenſible, is an abſolutely neceſſa-'ry part of learning, but eſpecially I would have him thorough-'ly ſkilled in heraldry. If he has travelled, ſo much the bet-'ter. But I inſiſt that he ſhall confine himſelf to live at my 'ſeat; and hire himſelf to me at leaſt for the term of ſix years. 'To a man thus to my mind, I am willing to allow lodging 'and diet at the table of the upper ſervants, with the wages of 'fifty guilders*. Chriſtmas boxes and fair-money I give none: 'theſe are ſordid doings, quite againſt my grain. At the end 'of the ſix years he is welcome to go where he will. God ſpeed 'him, I ſhall not be for clapping a ſpoke in his wheel. Theſe 'are offers which, to be ſure, muſt be thought highly reaſon-'able. If your man underſtands any thing of farming, he may 'lend a helping hand to my Steward, it will not be a loſs to 'him, as he does not yet ſo much as know of what uſe it may 'prove to him hereafter. I ſhall acknowlege, worthy Pro-'feſſor, your trouble herein, and remain your's moſt heartily.

ANSWER.

'Honoured Sir,

'In humble compliance with the commands you were pleaſed 'to charge me with, I have given myſelf the trouble to inveſ-

* 'A guilder is about half a crown.

'tigate

'tigate for you, in every form and mode, among thoſe whom 'I imagine not totally unworthy of thoſe generous offers, 'which, like a true Mecænas and Patron of the Beaux Arts 'and Sciences, and with a magnanimity becoming your exalt-'ed ſtation, you have been pleaſed to tranſmit me. Of per-'ſons out of ſervice, there is, indeed, no want: but the worſt 'is, that young folks, in our days, are too forward and con-'ceited, and cannot be brought to ſet out on ſmall beginnings: 'inflated with their little ſtore of learning, they are ſo unrea-'ſonable as to demand, for their minute ſervices, which reach 'no further than teaching of children, as much as might readi-'ly maintain three ſtout fellows in livery. There was a young 'perſon with me, who, indeed, was poſſeſſed of all the quali-'ties which you are pleaſed to require in a Tutor, for your 'noble offspring; of ſerious deportment, and good morals, 'beſides; and which, I hope, will not be diſagreeable, a ſin-'cere Chriſtian. There is not a man living fitter to educate 'your young Gentlemen, ſo as to be ſerviceable to their coun-'try, and do honour to your eminent family. But then what 'ſignifies it?—his demands are monſtrous: and you know the 'world too well, to throw away ſo much money merely for a 'little learning; and after all the expence only to have well-bred 'virtuous children. This would be a deviation from the prac-'tice of people of faſhion, of which, I am ſure, you will not be 'guilty. If you have a mind for a fit of laughter, only be pleaſed 'to read over his ridiculous pretenſions, written in his own hand, 'and here annexed under the mark A*. In a word, ſuch an 'extravagant Tutor will not, by any means, Sir, anſwer your 'purpoſe. Some others have been with me, who would look 'upon themſelves as highly favoured to be admitted as Tutors 'in your family. Indeed they are to ſeek in every qualification 'fit for a Gentleman in your rank; and to ſpeak the truth, the 'behaviour of moſt of them is none of the beſt. However, 'all muſt give them this commendation, that they are very pli-'ant and ſubmiſſive; and they will be proud to ſerve in ſo ho-'nourable a family upon very reaſonable terms.

'A farther account of them is to be ſeen in the annexed B. 'I am, with due obſequiouſneſs, waiting your final determina-'tion. Might I offer my advice, and I do it without any un-'becoming freedom, I ſhould appoint the candidates to come 'all at once to me, and, as it were, ſet up the Tutorſhip to 'auction; and that reaſonable perſon who ſhould place the 'leaſt value on his ſervices, I would nominate for your accept-

* His propoſals conclude with a demand of two hundred and fifty-ſeven dollars, or about forty pounds, per annum.

'ance

'ance, and ſend him. But I humbly refer all to your more 'enlightned underſtanding; and remain with the moſt pro-'found reſpect, honoured Sir,

'Your moſt humble and moſt devoted ſervant.

'P. S. May I preſume to intercede with you, Sir, that in 'your great goodneſs, you would be pleaſed to confer on my 'eldeſt ſon the living in your diſpoſal? It would be a favour 'for which I ſhall retain the deepeſt and moſt profound ſenti-'ments of gratitude and veneration.

Dum memor ipſe mei dum ſpiritus hos regit artus.

'Liſt of Candidates for the poſt of Tutor in your family.

'P. C. Magiſter Artium, aged forty years; to all appearance 'a ſtaid man, has, for twenty years paſt been Preceptor in noble 'families; but never could keep a place above a twelvemonth: 'poſſibly might formerly have been well verſed in the ſciences, 'but they have ſince evaporated. However, he can inſtruct 'your Honour's children, as far as they need, in that branch. 'Beſides the fifty guilders, he demands beer and tobacco, quan-'tum ſufficit.

'N. B. Bremen tobacco goes down with him.

'S. D. aged twenty-ſeven, ſquints, talks both Greek and 'Latin, but has no knowlege of our own language; which, 'indeed, qualifies him the better for being Preceptor in a no-'ble family.——

'W. S. A Poet by profeſſion, verſifies fluently, and cannot 'bear the preſent rugged poems in blank verſe. God be praiſed 'that here and there are found ſome people of a good taſte. All 'his learning is limited to Mythology, which he has at his fin-'gers ends. He is now engaged in a very elaborate piece, of 'turning all the Epiſtles on Sundays and Holidays into rhyme, 'without altering or tranſpoſing a ſingle word in the original. 'When he has finiſhed that, he intends to apply himſelf to the 'Belles Lettres: not but that he can make ſomething of Corde-'rius's Colloquies. He is inexhauſtible in projects. He offers 'to ſerve without wages, if every congratulatory poem of two 'hundred verſes, ſhall be rewarded with four groſchens (eight 'pence) by which he propoſes to make at leaſt eighty dollars 'a year. He would be thankful for a caſt off ſuit of cloaths 'every Chriſtmas; no matter how old they are. May I take 'the liberty to beg of your honour a pair of breeches for the 'poor fellow? it will do inſtead of earneſt.

'N. B. He has wit at will; and ſuch a knack at ſatyrical 'jeſts, as would make one ſplit one's ſides with laughing. He 'will afford your honour infinite merriment; and nothing puts 'him out of humour but finding fault with his verſes.

'——A. B. He has ſuch a delight in hounds, that his mo-'ther, wife to the Steward of the family, came under a ſuſpi-'cion of living in too intimate a commerce with her huſband's 'Lord; at leaſt he is very like him. If he has nothing of the 'ſcholar, he is a complete ſportſman. Few come near him for 'knitting of lark-nets; and he challenges all the neighbour-'hood for bird-catching. He will not take under fifty dollars, 'and all the foxes ſkins. He has alſo a good hand at catching 'field-mice.

'N. N. Is a handſome volatile Fribble, tricks himſelf up 'like a doll, with a ſuitable carriage, ſtudied four years at 'Leipſic, and in all that time never wore a hat, having, as he 'owns, chiefly applied himſelf to more genteel ſtudies. Offers 'to curl the young Gentlemens hair; excels in taking ſpots of 'ink out of linen, inlays bureaus, and can cut all ſorts of pret-'ty figures in paper, like a man. Upon my aſking what wa-'ges he required for ſuch talents: making a ſtately ſtep back, 'he anſwered with a toſs of the head, I think ſeventy dollars 'muſt be the leaſt! My wife is prodigiouſly taken with him.

'If your Honour be abſolutely bent on a perſon for teaching 'Latin, French, Italian, Hiſtory, Dancing, Riding, Fenc-'ing, and the whole circle of Sciences, let me recommend to 'you F. V. Indeed all theſe things are out of his ſphere; but, 'he is my ſiſter's ſon.'—

An Eſſay upon Money and Coins. Part I. The Theories of Com-merce, Money, and Trade. 8vo. 2s. Hawkins.

THE Author of this Eſſay, who appears to be a ſenſible Wri-ter, and well acquainted with his ſubject, propoſes here to unfold the Nature and Theory of Money. This he profeſſes to be the principal intent of the preſent publication; but, 'in or-'der to clear the way, and for the better ſettling of things up-'on a right foundation,' he has thought it neceſſary, 'to take 'a general view of Wealth and Commerce, which is the ſub-'ject of the firſt chapter, and the third, concerning Exchanges,' he juſtly obſerves, 'is not foreign to the main deſign.'

Tho'

Tho' our Author will not, perhaps, be thought to have advanced much, that can properly be deemed new on the topics to which his firſt chapter is appropriated, yet candour muſt allow him to have treated them with preciſion and perſpicuity; and, what is far from leſſening his other merit, with ſo much conciſeneſs, that even the indolent Reader may gratify his curioſity, without any apprehenſion of overſtraining his patience.

Land and Labour are here conſidered as the genuine fountains of Opulence; yet, that the general eſtimation of all commodities is regulated by their plenty, the eaſineſs of their attainment, and the labour neceſſary to perfect them for uſe. From the indiſpenſible neceſſity of a ſufficient number of labourers, it is not leſs judiciouſly, than benevolently inferred, that 'it ſeems then 'no good policy in the rich to deal too hardly with the poor; 'beſides, that ſuch treatment muſt needs greatly check arts and 'induſtry, diſcourage matrimony amongſt the lower claſs, and 'inſpire them with thoughts of quitting their homes, in hopes 'of bettering their ſtate elſewhere.' After deducing the origin of Arts and Commerce, ſhewing the utility of individuals applying themſelves to different occupations, and ſome pertinent remarks on the comparative riches of nations, this chapter concludes with a further enforcement of the propoſition, 'that la'bour, ſkill, and induſtry, are the true ſources of wealth; and 'the means of diſtributing it, in a due proportion, among all 'the members of the body politic. It is not,' adds our Author, 'any ſpecific quantity of money, but the due diſtribution 'of it, that renders that body healthy and vigorous in all its 'parts. Idleneſs is the bane of ſociety; the great ſource of 'vice and confuſion; the fore-runner of public diſtreſs and ca'lamity. Induſtry produces contrary effects; and is to be 'promoted by all poſſible methods: theſe are various; they 'are chiefly good laws, ſpeedily, righteouſly, and cheaply ex'ecuted; wiſe regulations of commerce, as well internal as 'foreign; good examples; a watchful care in the Magiſtrates 'to ſuppreſs, in the firſt inſtances, vice, ſloth, and all kinds of 'immoralities; a due care of the indigent and feeble, that 'none periſh for want, when there is more than ſufficient for 'all; the ſecuring of private property; a due diſdain of all 'chicanery, quibbling, and ſophiſtry, more eſpecially in Schools 'and Courts of Juſtice; ability, uprightneſs, and diſpatch in 'public offices; the countenancing of probity, of plain deal'ing, of arts and ſciences; and in all caſes an inviolable main'tenance of public faith. Theſe are ſome of the ways to 'breed and cheriſh a public ſpirit among all ranks of people; 'without which no nation can be happy; no community can 'long ſubſiſt.

'A nation ſkilful in arts, abounding in products, untainted in its morals; where public ſpirit prevails above local and perſonal intereſts; and under a wiſe and righteous government, duly tempered, ſo as to be ſecure itſelf, and all under it ſecure; a nation, I ſay, under theſe circumſtances, muſt needs, within itſelf, be rich, flouriſhing, and happy. But power, grandeur, and influence abroad, depend chiefly upon the number of induſtrious inhabitants at home. A limited number cannot acquire above a limited degree of wealth or ſtrength: the way to increaſe both, is to break down the barricadoes of local enfranchiſements; to encourage matrimony among the lower claſs, by giving ſome privileges to thoſe who have children; finding employments for thoſe who are able, and ſupplying with neceſſaries the helpleſs and indigent. Moreover, if you pleaſe, you may invite hither foreign Proteſtants, by giving the privileges of free denizons, to all that are deſirous of incorporating themſelves under the banner of our laws, and enjoying the benefits of our happy conſtitution. But ſome better regulations ſhould be made with regard to our own poor, before ſtrangers can be induced to come among us.'

Chap. II. is introduced with elucidating the inconveniencies and inſufficiency of mere Barter, and the neceſſity of ſome material, that ſhould be univerſally taken in exchange for all other commodities. In order to remove the one, and provide for the other, what we call *Money* was contrived; which, in our Author's opinion, ought to be looked upon as 'a STANDARD MEASURE *by which the values of all things are regulated and aſcertained; and is itſelf at the ſame time, the* VALUE *or* EQUIVALENT, *by which goods are exchanged, and in which contracts are made payable.* So that money is not a pledge* to be afterwards redeemed, but is both an Equivalent and a Meaſure, being in all contracts, the very thing uſually bargained for, as well as the Meaſure of the bargain: or if one thing be bartered for another, the meaſure of the bargain is uſually the quantity of Money which each of the things bartered are conceived to be worth.'

A fundamental characteriſtic of Money, in which it differs from other meaſures and commodities, is, that its value is permanent and unalterable; 'that is, Money being the meaſure of the values of all other things, and that, like all other ſtandard meaſures, by its quantity only; its own value is to be

* Mr. Law, and ſome other Writers on this ſubject, have ſuppoſed what have been ſince called Money, to have been originally depoſited as pledges.'

'deemed

'deemed invariable: and all contracts or engagements are to 'be deemed fully diſcharged and ſatisfied by the payment of 'the ſpecific quantity or ſum of Money agreed upon; without 'having any regard to the value of Money, with reſpect to 'other things at the different times of contracting and diſcharg-'ing of debts.'

Among the requiſite properties of Money, it is particularly inſiſted, that the material of which it is made, ought not to be 'too common, not growing ſpontaneouſly, or to be found 'without a valuable conſideration in labour or land; not very 'ſubject to be conſumed with uſe, or ſpoiled for want of uſe, 'nor ſubject to expence in keeping.' To anſwer this purpoſe, metals, and of theſe ſilver and gold, are ſhewn to be moſt convenient. From hence our Author is led to conſider the introduction, names, nature, and utility of Coins, with their effects in the courſe of circulation. Under this laſt head, a point more eſpecially laboured, is, to prove, that 'any given ſum or 'quantity of Money will have its value in a certain proportion 'as it is a part of the whole ſtock or quantity in currency, and 'that any increaſe or diminution of the whole, will in proportion leſſen or increaſe the value of any given ſum.'

From this propoſition, among other inferences, our Author endeavours to ſhew, that all artificial methods of adding to the quantity of tale-money in circulation, muſt be attended with pernicious conſequences. 'Suppoſe,' ſays he, 'the ſum total of 'Money, real and fictitious, now annually circulating in this 'country, to be a hundred Millions; twenty millions of which 'are in caſh, and the reſt in paper-credit, both public and private: if this paper-credit be increaſed by the creating of more 'bills, ſuppoſe to the amount of ten Millions; one of the following will neceſſarily be the conſequence: either all our commodities will riſe ten per Cent. in their nominal value, which 'will render them too dear for foreign markets; or, this addition 'of paper bills will drain away ten Millions of our caſh, and ſo impoveriſh us in reality to that whole amount; or the effect 'moſt likely will be, partly the one, and partly the other; but 'which ever it is, the nation will be equally endamaged. May 'this ever be a caution to Stateſmen, how they liſten to projects that muſt clog our trade, baniſh our coin, and in the 'end bring on a general bankruptcy.'

The concluſion of this chapter furniſhes ſome uncommon, and very judicious obſervations on the popular complaints of the want of Money.——'All the ſcramble is for Money; 'few think they have enough, and many complain. This, 'probably, will ever be the caſe; nor would ſetting the

'Mint to work cure the evil; and perhaps there is no where 'more want, than where there is moſt Money. The Beggar 'hath no property, nothing to exchange for money; and if he 'will not work, none would come to his ſhare, if the common 'ſtock was ever ſo much increaſed; a greater plenty of Money 'would be ſo far from being advantageous to him, that he would 'run the riſk of ſtarving, as bread and proviſions of all ſorts 'would be ſo much the dearer. The Farmer complains, and 'thinks that if there was more Money in the country, his corn 'and cattle would fetch a better price: they would fetch more 'Money, but not more of any thing elſe that he wants; and he 'would not be at all bettered by this higher price, unleſs ſo far 'as a ſudden increaſe of Money might eaſe him in his rent, by 'leſſening the intrinſic value of the ſpecific ſum which he had 'agreed to pay. The ſame may be ſaid to the Merchant, 'Shopkeeper, &c. While all commodities keep the ſame pro-'portion of value in reſpect of one another, no one reaps any 'advantage by the raiſing the price in reſpect of Money, of his 'particular commodity. The complaints of particular perſons 'ariſe, not from a deficiency of Money or Counters in circu-'lation, but from their own want of property, want of ſkill, 'addreſs, or opportunity of getting more Money; or perhaps 'only for want of frugality, in ſpending more than their in-'come or proper ſhare. Anticipation is the grand ſource of 'diſtreſs and poverty, and is an evil that takes off much from 'the uſe of credit.'

We ſhould now proceed to the third chapter of this work, in which, as was before obſerved, Exchanges are treated of; but as our Author's brevity on this ſubject, will not, without prejudice to his ſentiments, admit of abridgment, and as the ſpecimens already given, are ſufficient to convey ſome idea of his manner, we ſhall refer the inquiſitive Reader for ſatisfaction on this head to the pamphlet itſelf. However, before we diſmiſs it, we ſhall take the liberty of pointing out a neceſſary correction in page 65, where Silver is ſaid to be about *twenty-ſix times* cheaper than Gold; which, undoubtedly, was meant to be only *ſixteen times*. This we have the rather mentioned, as it appears to have been a typographical miſtake, and not an error of judgment; and for the former, our Author has himſelf modeſtly alleged in excuſe, his ill ſtate of health, while his work was printing.

Sermons

Sermons by John Conybeare, D. D. late Lord Biſhop of Briſtol, and Dean of Chriſt-Church, Oxon. 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. Rivington.

THESE Diſcourſes have afforded us no ſmall ſatisfaction in the peruſal; as they abound with juſt and ſolid reflections, uſeful obſervations for the conduct of human life, and clear reaſonings on a variety of important ſubjects. With regard, indeed, to the doctrines of attonement, the trinity, original ſin, &c. his Lordſhip's reaſonings, we apprehend, will be much objected to by many Readers; nor will his manner of writing be very pleaſing to thoſe who expect to find in ſermons ſomething to touch their hearts, and warm their affections. Thoſe, however, who are better pleaſed with an addreſs to their judgments than to their feelings, will, in general, meet with a great deal of rational entertainment in theſe diſcourſes. We ſhall content ourſelves with giving our Readers a general view of what is contained in them, as a more particular account cannot be thought neceſſary.

In his firſt ſermon, his Lordſhip endeavours to ſhew, that the incarnation of Chriſt, being intend for the ſalvation of mankind, was a ſignal inſtance of divine condeſcenſion and favour; that the following conduct and adminiſtration of Chriſt did fully accompliſh the great end deſigned by his incarnation; and that the propoſing and accompliſhing this end by ſuch extraordinary means, was not only a ground of the utmoſt gratitude on man's part, but of joy and praiſe even in the angels themſelves; as being the brighteſt manifeſtation of the divine attributes, and conſequently, in the propereſt ſenſe of the expreſſion, of the divine glory itſelf. In the courſe of his Lordſhip's reaſonings upon this ſubject, he has advanced ſeveral things which ſtand in need of ſtronger arguments to ſupport them than any he has produced. He tells us, that repentance, though complete, cannot of itſelf reſtore us to the Divine favour; that the divine nature of Chriſt, being united to his human nature, gave an infinite value and importance to his ſufferings; that our intellectual and moral powers have been greatly impaired by the fall of our firſt parents, and our wills received an unhappy tendency to vice.

He enquires, in his ſecond ſermon, upon what grounds the Jews rejected the Meſſiah; and obſerves, that the cauſes of this rejection are founded partly in the temper and condition of the Jews themſelves; and partly in the wiſe permiſſion of Providence, which did not controul the perverſe wills of men. As

to thoſe which belong to the former head, they are principally ſuch as follow; 1. Lazineſs and indolence, which prevented their making proper enquiries into the authority of our Lord's commiſſion. 2. Strong prejudice and adherence to former opinions and practices, by which their underſtandings were blinded, and unable to ſee the evidence produced. 3. Corrupt paſſions and appetites, which had equally an influence on the apprehenſion and the will; weakened their intellectual powers, and made them averſe to a religion which condemned them.

The ſubject of his Lordſhip's third ſermon, is the excellency of patience: his fourth, fifth, and ſixth contain very pertinent and uſeful reflections on the hiſtory of Joſeph: his ſeventh ſermon, which is an excellent one, conſiders the diviſion of mankind into rich and poor. In this diſcourſe he ſhews, that it is impoſſible, under the preſent conſtitution of things, but that there muſt be rich and poor; that notwithſtanding this there is no great difference, in point of happineſs, between the one and the other; that many important ends are anſwered by this diviſion; and eſpecially, that the general happineſs of mankind is increaſed by it. In the eighth and ninth ſermons, the Reader will find ſeveral judicious obſervations on the conduct of Herod toward John the Baptiſt.

Prophecies and miracles are ſhewn, in the tenth diſcourſe, to be ſufficient proofs of a divine commiſſion. In the proſecution of this ſubject, his Lordſhip offers, 1. Such reflections on prophecies and miracles, as may be of uſe to clear the point before him; 2. He ſtates and limits the doctrine he maintains, and ſhews how far, and under what circumſtances, the argument drawn from prophecies and miracles, in proof of a revelation, is ſufficient; after which he endeavours, in the third place, to evince the ſtrength of the argument, by ſhewing wherein the real force of it conſiſts.

By prophecy he would be underſtood to mean, the prediction of ſome future event, incapable of being fore-known by man; and by a miracle, the production of ſome effect, in itſelf, or its circumſtances, above the power of any viſible means or agent. Theſe he does not offer as complete definitions of prophecy or miracles, but only as deſcriptions ſufficient for his purpoſe. Now the firſt obſervation he makes on their reſpective natures, is this; the one implies a diſproportion between the thing foreknown, and the greateſt human foreſight; the other implies a like diſproportion between the thing done, and the greateſt human or viſible power. On this account, each muſt refer us to ſome ſuperior Being, as their author;—to ſome Being, whoſe knowlege or whoſe power, is more than human.

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A miracle being the production of ſome effect, in itſelf, or its circumſtances, above the power of any viſible means or agent, a difficulty may ariſe, what are properly miracles; becauſe we know not how far the power of viſible agents may extend, or what may be the influence of thoſe means they may poſſibly uſe. But, though a difficulty ſhould be ſuppoſed capable of ariſing in certain caſes; yet this, his Lordſhip ſays, will not prejudice the cauſe he contends for. To this purpoſe, therefore, he obſerves, 1ſt. That though caſes ſhould happen, in which it may be difficult to diſtinguiſh between real miracles and natural effects; yet it will not follow from hence, that there can be no miracles properly ſo called. The very difficulty of diſtinguiſhing, in certain caſes, ſuppoſes that there *are*, or *may* be real miracles, which occaſion the difficulty. He obſerves, 2dly, that, in other caſes, the reality of miracles may be ſo apparent as to prevent all difficulty whatſoever. This is ſufficient for the purpoſe; becauſe, in all inſtances of real difficulty, we may ſafely give up the point, and reſt our cauſe on thoſe effects which are clearly ſupernatural. The miracles we are concerned about, are divine atteſtations of a divine commiſſion; concerning which commiſſion we might ſafely doubt, unleſs ſome ſuch credential be produced. But, in all *reaſon*, the argument alleged to prove a point muſt be clearer than the point intended to be proved. From whence we may ſafely conclude, that God will not work miracles, nor permit them to be wrought, under ſuch circumſtances as ſhall render their reality in the leaſt doubtful; ſince that would diſappoint the very effect they were intended to produce.

He now proceeds to his ſecond general head, viz. To ſtate and limit the doctrine he would eſtabliſh. And here two queſtions ariſe: 1. What the point is, which prophecies and miracles are deſigned to prove: and, 2. How far, and under what circumſtances, they are a ſufficient argument to prove it. His Lordſhip maintains, that both prophecies and miracles are properly, and in their immediate view, the proofs of a divine commiſſion; though remotely, and in their conſequences, they are evidences likewiſe of thoſe points which the commiſſioned teacher dictates.

In regard to the ſecond queſtion, he is far from maintaining, that either prophecies or miracles are, in all caſes, evidences ſufficient of a divine commiſſion. Other things, he tells us, muſt be taken into the account, either as parts of the proof itſelf, or as conditions, at leaſt, without which, no proof of this kind can be available. Now the firſt condition is this, that the doctrine taught under the claim of a divine commiſſion muſt be, in its own nature, capable of proof; that is, muſt be conſiſtent not only with itſelf, but with every other certain truth; and be ſuch,

likewiſe, as, on other accounts, is not unworthy of a divine manifeſtation.

He likewiſe obſerves, in reference both to prophecies and miracles, that they can be evidence of a divine commiſſion no farther than they are alleged as evidence;—no farther than ſuch a commiſſion is claimed under them, and confirmed by them. The miracles alleged in ſupport of a divine authority, he obſerves farther, muſt be ſuch as are either *unoppoſed* by other miracles wrought for an oppoſite purpoſe, or, if *oppoſed*, they muſt carry with them a manifeſtation of ſome ſuperior and uncontrolable power.

Under the third general head, his Lordſhip endeavours to ſhew the force of the argument, by eſtabliſhing theſe two things; 1. That prophecies and miracles are properly divine credentials; and, 2. That to ſuppoſe ſuch credentials produced, without any real divine commiſſion correſponding to them, is inconſiſtent with the known attributes of God.—The whole of this diſcourſe deſerves the attentive peruſal of the intelligent reader; but we muſt not farther enlarge upon it.

In the eleventh ſermon his Lordſhip conſiders and applies St. Paul's difficulties and diſtreſſes; in the twelfth and thirteenth he endeavours to ſhew, that the condition of mankind is in general unhappy, without the belief of a future ſtate; and, in the fourteenth, that there are different degrees of happineſs in a future ſtate:—in the laſt ſermon of the firſt volume, he ſhews the excellency of charity above faith and hope.

The firſt ſermon in the ſecond volume treats of the aggravations of ſin under the goſpel; the ſecond and third contain reflections on the diſpute between St. Paul and Barnabas; and in the fourth his Lordſhip endeavours to prove, that the doctrine of Chriſt's ſatisfaction is agreeable to reaſon. As this ſubject cannot properly be brought within the compaſs of one diſcourſe, he only conſiders a ſingle branch of it, and enquires what foundation the doctrine of Chriſt's ſatisfaction has in the nature and reaſon of things. Now the ſubſtance of what natural reaſon teaches concerning the ſubject, may be reduced, we are told, to the following propoſitions.

1. Every man upon the commiſſion of ſin, apprehends and dreads ſome puniſhment, which he is conſcious that ſin deſerves. 2. That puniſhment which ſin deſerves, God may, as ſupreme Governor of the world, inflict; and this may be done without inconſiſtency with any of the divine attributes. 3. As God may, conſiſtently with the divine attributes, inflict puniſhment for ſin, ſo the reaſons of his moral government ſeem to require he ſhould inflict it; unleſs ſome way be found to repair the injury done by ſin to the cauſe of virtue, and the authority of God. 4. Man, of himſelf, is incapable of doing any thing ſufficient to repair the miſchief which his ſin hath cauſed; and therefore,

on this foot only, he muſt remain without comfort, and without hope. But, 5. Notwithſtanding this, a perſuaſion hath always obtained, that God will forgive ſin; and conſequently, that ſome method hath been contrived (whatever that method be) whereby ſuch forgiveneſs may be vouchſafed, conſiſtently with the regard owing to the intereſt of virtue, and the divine dignity. And laſtly, that the doctrine concerning ſatisfaction for ſin by the death of Chriſt, doth fully and moſt unexceptionably anſwer this purpoſe: from whence it follows, that the doctrine is, from its own nature credible, and readily to be embraced, upon ſufficient authority of holy ſcripture.

In treating further upon this ſubject, his Lordſhip tells us, that God ſent his ſon into the world, not merely to teach the rules of righteouſneſs,—or to illuſtrate them by his practice,—or to confirm them by his death,—but to ſtand in mens ſtead,—to ſuffer for their ſins,—to ſatisfy by his ſufferings,—to merit their pardon by his ſatisfaction; and, in conſequence of this, to perfect a reconciliation between God and man.

The divine nature of Chriſt, we are told, was united to the human; it was ſo united as to conſtitute one ſingle perſon; in conſequence of ſuch an union, whatever may be affirmed concerning the acts of either nature, may be affirmed of the perſon; and conſequently, as by the human nature Chriſt could ſuffer, and by the divine, merit, ſo the ſame perſon moſt effectually did both. This doctrine, his Lordſhip ſays, will be found entirely reaſonable, if the following propoſitions be made good; 1. One perſon may be ſubſtituted for, and become the repreſentative of another, in ſuch a manner, that the acts of the repreſentative ſhall be conſidered as performed by the perſon he repreſents. 2. One perſon may be ſubſtituted for another, even in the adminiſtrations of diſtributive juſtice; in thoſe caſes, at leaſt, where the puniſhments inflicted on one party, ſhall fully anſwer the ends of puniſhment to be ſuſtained by the other. 3. According to the doctrine now propoſed, the condition of our bleſſed Lord was ſuch, as rendered the ſufferings he ſuſtained for us anſwerable to all the puniſhments due to ſinners! inſomuch, that by them every end might be compaſſed which could be promoted by the perſonal ſufferings of the offenders; and all that reparation made, which poſſibly could be made, for the ſins committed by them. And, 4. Upon this account the ſufferings of Chriſt may, not unfitly, be ſaid, to *make a full, perfect, and ſufficient ſatisfaction for the ſins of the whole world.*—Theſe propoſitions his Lordſhip endeavours to ſupport, but what he has advanced, does not ſeem to throw any new light upon the ſubject.

In his fifth ſermon he ſhews the neceſſity of a revelation, from the imperfection of the law of nature, conſidered as a rule

of duty. And here he, firſt, endeavours to ſtate what we ſhould underſtand by the law of nature; from whence the obligation of it ariſes; and how far it extends. 2dly. He enquires, whether this law, if properly underſtood, be not, in many reſpects, imperfect; and therefore, 3dly, whether an extraordinary manifeſtation of the Divine Will were not, on that account, needful.

The law of nature, it is ſaid, ſignifies ſuch a collection of moral rules as are diſcoverable by us in the proper uſe of thoſe faculties which we enjoy. By diſcovering how far theſe will carry us, we ſhall learn the proper extent of this law. Now here his Lordſhip conceives it will be of moment to obſerve, that human reaſon may be conſidered, either as it is diſperſed through all human kind,—or elſe as it ſubſiſts ſeparately in every particular perſon. If we take it in the former view, we admit, that human reaſon may maſter all thoſe points, which are capable of being comprehended by any particular man, under any circumſtances whatſoever: and thus we ſay, nothing is above human reaſon, but that which is above every man's reaſon. Matters, however, will appear otherwiſe, if we conſider the expreſſion in the latter ſenſe of it. What doth it ſignify to the ignorant and illiterate, that Socrates, for inſtance, has carried his moral diſcoveries to an extraordinary height? The reaſon of Socrates is, and muſt be, his own rule: and, upon the ſame account, the reaſon of his ſlave is, and muſt be, *his*. As far, therefore, as the ſame things are capable of appearing in the ſame light to both theſe perſons, they will have the ſame law of duty: but if it ſhall happen, that the reaſon of Socrates ſhall carry him farther than the reaſon of his ſlave, in proportion *his* reaſon will enlarge his obligations, and things will become matter of duty to the one, which are not ſo to the other.

What then, in this caſe, is the law of nature? Is it exactly the ſame to both? By no means; for then each perſon would be under the ſame engagements: but if their engagements be different, their laws muſt be ſo likewiſe. When, therefore, men are ſaid to be obliged by the *law of nature*, it can amount to no more than this; that every man ought to perform thoſe things which his own particular reaſon ſuggeſts to him, without regard to thoſe farther diſcoveries, which, though made by others are incomprehenſible by himſelf.

In conſequence of this reaſoning, our Author obſerves, that we ought to diſtinguiſh between a *rule of fitneſs*, and *a law of duty*. The former will be the ſame to all mankind; but the latter muſt vary in proportion to each particular man's attainments or opportunities: and whatever degrees of perfection we allow to the one, yet the other, under the direction of natural light, will be greatly imperfect.

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The error of thoſe who repreſent the *law of nature* as a ſufficient and complete rule of life, his Lordſhip ſays, lies here. By *law of nature* they either mean—a perfect collection of all thoſe precepts which are founded on the nature and reaſon of things;—or, at leaſt, ſuch a collection as the beſt and wiſeſt men in fact have made, or may be preſumed capable of making;—whereas this law (as it ought to be underſtood in the preſent queſtion) is by no means fixed and uniform; it varies in proportion to the different capacities of different men; and therefore, to know how perfect it is, we muſt know thoroughly how far the reaſon and opportunities of each particular perſon are capable to carry him.

Upon the whole, ſince nothing can be a law to *us*, which is undiſcoverable by us, it follows, that the law of nature can reach to thoſe points only, the reaſons of which are capable of being diſcerned by us: and foraſmuch as the capacities of different men are, in this reſpect, various, this law, as it regards different men, muſt vary likewiſe. In ſhort, it will be none other, than ſuch a collection of moral rules, as each perſon, according to the circumſtances he is placed in, is capable of framing for himſelf. Whether ſuch a law be entirely perfect, and ſuch as ſuperſedes all occaſions of farther light and direction, his Lordſhip proceeds to conſider under his ſecond general head.

The entire perfection of a law will require, he ſays, that it extend itſelf to every thing which is fit and proper matter of that law;—that the meaning of it be clear, and the promulgation full;—that the ſanctions by which it is enforced be weighty as to their nature, and ſo expreſly denounced, as to leave no room for doubt; and laſtly, that the law itſelf be ſo ſuited to the circumſtances of the world, as may afford grounds to expect an unreſerved obedience to it:—where any of theſe are wanting, the law cannot be ſaid to be entirely perfect. Our Author proceeds to try the *law of nature*, as before explained, by the rules here mentioned, and then goes on to the third head of his diſcourſe:—but we muſt not enlarge any farther in our account of this ſermon; which, however, we cannot help recommending to the peruſal of the intelligent Reader, as containing many judicious reflections on the inſufficiency of human reaſon in matters of religion, and the uſefulneſs and expediency of divine revelation.

In the ſixth and ſeventh ſermons our Author examines the hiſtory of Cain and Abel, and points out thoſe particulars which are moſt worthy our obſervation. In the eighth he takes occaſion, from *Heb.* xi. 17, 18, 19. to treat of Abraham's faith; to ſhew the inſtances in which he was tried, and the reaſons and grounds on which he built his confidence, notwithſtanding the difficulties which preſſed him. In the ninth

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and tenth he treats of the nature and employment of good Angels. In the eleventh, preached on the 29th of May, he ſhews that Providence is concerned in the revolutions of government. In the twelfth he endeavours to aſſign the reaſons why God delays the puniſhment of wicked men; and in the thirteenth and fourteenth he treats of the *rule of equity*, ſtates the true meaning of the rule, enquires into the natural ground and foundation on which it is built, and points out the great excellency and uſefulneſs of it.

The moral infirmity of human nature is the ſubject of the fifteenth; human life is ſhewn to be a ſtate of pilgrimage in the ſixteenth; and in the ſeventeenth our Author makes ſeveral very uſeful and ſenſible reflections on theſe words in Eccleſiaſtes, *All is vanity*. The volume concludes with his Lordſhip's charge to his clergy, delivered at his primary viſitation, in the month of July, 1752.

A Diſſertation on the Motion of the Blood, and on the Effects of Bleeding. Verified by experiments on living animals, &c. By Dr. Alb. Haller, *Preſident of the Royal Society of Sciences at Gottingen, &c. Tranſlated by a Phyſician.* 8vo. 2 s. Whiſton and White.

THIS Performance conſiſts of a tranſlation † of two papers, communicated by the learned and induſtrious Dr. Haller to the Royal Society at Gottingen; the firſt, according to the order in which they here ſtand, was preſented the 8th of October, 1754, and is inſerted in the fourth volume of the Commentaries of that Society: the other was read Nov. 10, 1751, and ſtands in the firſt volume of the ſame Commentaries. Another tranſlation of the latter was annexed to the Engliſh edition of the Doctor's Diſſertation on Irritability, and the deſign of it was mentioned in our account of that work ‡. With reſpect to the former, having had another occaſion ‖ to take notice of it, we might, perhaps, be excuſeable for diſmiſſing it very ſhortly, was it not diſtinguiſhed by ſo reſpectable a name.

For the gratification then of our medical Readers, (for few others, we are perſuaded, will think themſelves much obliged

† Dr. Tiſſot, of Lauſanne, ſome time ago, publiſhed a tranſlation of theſe papers in French, as he aſſures us, under the Author's inſpection. From this tranſlation the Engliſh edition is manifeſtly taken.

‡ See Review, Vol. XIV. p. 126. ‖ Ibid. p. 329. note.

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to us by it) we will endeavour to lay before them an analyſis of this diſſertation.—It is divided into ſix chapters. In the firſt Dr. Haller profeſſes to treat of the ſtructure of the arteries and veins. The coats of the arteries, according to his examen of them, are found to be thick, white, and compact, and though the circumference of the tube does not appear equally thick upon a tranſverſe ſection, yet this thickneſs often makes one half of the diameter, and the cavity of the tube the other half. Sometimes it makes the greater part of it. The blood may be propelled in an artery without increaſing the whole diameter of the artery, by only enlarging the cavity of the arterial tube; whence it appears, that the denſities of the coats increaſes in proportion to the force with which the blood is propelled therein, and hence the hardneſs of the pulſe in ſome fevers. Our Author did not diſcover any ſmall veſſels upon the coats of the arteries.

The veins exceed the arteries in number and diameter, which is almoſt double to that of the arteries. But the chief difference between theſe two ſorts of veſſels, is in the net-work of the veins, which divide into ramifications capable of tranſmitting only a ſingle globule, which he has not ſeen among the arteries. The veins alſo have a very delicate thin coat, inſomuch that the blood-globules may be diſtinctly ſeen through them: theſe globules ſeem to form a chain, like a row of beads. He further enquires what thoſe veſſels are which Dr. Boerhaave appoints for the conveyance of the liquids thinner than blood. 'A perſon,' ſays the Doctor, 'not accuſtomed to obſervation, eaſily perſuades himſelf he ſees 'them, when he obſerves for that purpoſe in the meſentery of 'frogs, little veſſels which ſuffer only a yellow globule to paſs 'them. Deceived by this colour, I thought myſelf happy ſome 'years ago, in having it my power to make this obſervation; 'and Mr. Baker mentions the ſame error in a friend of his: but 'an obſerver leſs ſubject to believe what he deſires, does not 'long enjoy this pleaſure, and ſoon confeſſeth that all he ſaw 'were only very ſmall veins ariſing from red veins, which uniting 'become again red veins, containing only red globules. If to 'the eye they appear yellow, it is only becauſe the colour of a 'ſingle row of globules, being extremely weak, vaniſhes, and 'diſchargeth itſelf through the membranes, and is not apparent 'to us, until the globules become more numerous.' Yet he does not deny but that there may be veſſels proper to tranſmit a fluid thinner than blood.

In the ſecond chapter, wherein he conſiders the humours, our Author does not pretend to determine the figure of the blood-globules, or ſay whether they occaſionally change their figure or not; but he aſſerts, that they are more red in proportion to the ſtrength of the animal, and put on a yel-

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low hue in ſuch as are more feeble. He thinks it highly improbable, that theſe globules ſhould contain any air, ſeeing if 'a candle be brought near the meſentery of a frog, ſo as 'to heat the blood, even almoſt ſo near as to burn it, the 'globules do not at all dilate themſelves, which they would 'conſequently do if they contained air: neither do they at all 'dilate themſelves in the receiver of an air-pump, when the 'air is drawn off †.

The Doctor alſo remarks, that theſe globules undergo many changes. 'The firſt, which happens very eaſily, is their coa-'gulation; this is formed from clots of blood, by the re-union 'of eight, or a greater number of globules, which very often 'ſhuts up the paſſage of the blood in the veſſels, eſpecially in 'the places where there happens to be aneuriſms or varices.— 'The ſecond change the red globules undergo, is, when they 'loſe their motion in the veins; they then ſeem to be changed 'into oil, and afterwards into a kind of ointment, wherein one 'may obſerve a few ſtriæ, or lines, like what is obſerved in 'diſtilling oils;' but 'bleeding, or heat, deſtroy this unctuo-'ſity, and eſtabliſh a diſtinction between each globule.'

Another conſiderable change, when the veſſel is wounded, is the formation of clots or lumps, that ſhut up the wounded veſſel. When the firſt force of the blood is over, and it bleeds but ſlowly, round the orifice may be obſerved a kind of cloud, compoſed of a liquor that by degrees becomes white, and which changeth into a tumour, as if formed by the very membranes of the veſſel, and in the middle of which may be diſcovered a red ſpot, ſituated exactly on the orifice of the veſſel. This concretion it is that gives riſe to polypuſes, and to thoſe white laminæ which are often found in aneuriſms.

The third Chapter is employed in tracing the motion of the arterial blood; the method purſued by our Author is, firſt to examine what is diſcoverable in this reſpect without opening the veſſels; to which purpoſe he repeats the experiments made by Harvey and others, relating to the circulation of this neceſſary fluid; and agrees, that 'the blood propelled by the heart dilates 'the arteries, and creates what is called the pulſe;' alſo, 'that 'it paſſeth from the heart into the aorta, and from the aorta 'into all the arteries of the body.' From hence he proceeds to the conſideration of thoſe motions of the blood that are leſs apparent, 'and which are not perceived untill the veſſels are

† The Tranſlator, we hope, will excuſe us for offering ſome amendments to his punctuation, in order to reconcile this paſſage to common ſenſe: but erroneous punctuation is not the only fault of this tranſlation, which is, in moſt reſpects, extremely defective.

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'opened, unleſs their membranes are tranſparent,' as in frogs and fiſh.— Upon experiments made on theſe animals the Doctor chiefly founds his obſervations.

'The firſt phænomenon that offers itſelf, is, the rapidity with 'which the globules of blood move from the heart to the ex- 'tremities; in frogs it is impoſſible to diſtinguiſh any difference 'between the velocity that is obſerved in the ramifications and 'that which is obſerved in the trunks.—I have often ſeen, in 'the ſmall meſenteric veſſels of a frog, ſo great a velocity that I 'could hardly follow it with my eye, and ſometimes it equalled, 'ſometimes exceeded, the velocity of the blood in the great 'veſſels. But if this velocity is ſo conſiderable in the ſmall 'veins, it muſt be more ſo in the ſmall arteries, from which 'theſe veins have their origin and motion; and more conſider- 'able yet in the arteries that are larger than the capillary ones.' But more effectually to remove all doubt on this occaſion, 'in 'a branch [of a vein] which aroſe from a trunk much larger, 'and which returned up again the length of this ſame trunk, I 'obſerved, that the blood had a much greater velocity in 'the branch than in the trunk.——He alſo further takes no- tice, that 'the red-globules ſwim equally diſtributed in the 'ſeroſity, without any confuſion, and are moved in right pa- 'rallel lines, without rubbing, or mixing themſelves together.' Whence he infers, that all that hath been reported of the inteſ- tinal motion of the blood, and its deriving from thence a pro- greſſive motion, is entirely fallacious.

The blood is deſcribed to be in an unnatural ſtate, when ei- ther retardation, perturbation, oſcillation, retroceſſion, reſt, or inanition prevail*: of theſe retardation, commonly firſt takes place, an almoſt conſtant effect of which is ſaid to be, oſcilla- tion; in this caſe, the blood goes and comes, and alternately purſues its natural courſe, and afterwards becomesre trograde.

The motion of the venal blood is the ſubject of the fourth chapter; in which the Doctor firſt offers ſome proofs of the ex- iſtence of a pulſe in the veins; but as this is a fact at pre- ſent little controverted, we ſhall paſs over the evidences he brings in confirmation of this doctrine. The motion of the blood in the veins (proceeds our Author) is ſwift, though not ſo ſwift as the motion in the correſpondent arteries, but about three times ſlower, as the veins have their cavities three times larger than the arteries. To their having a leſs degree of velocity is aſcribed a more frequent retroceſſive motion in the veins than

* Supereſt ut eum motum arterioſi ſanguinis deſcribam, qui a na- turali recidit, et cujus gradus reperio retardationem, turbationem, oſ- cillationem, retrogreſſum, quietem, inanitatem vaſorum. Comm. ſocict. Gotting. Vol. IV. p. 301.

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in the arteries. A phænomenon worth taking notice of, ſays our Author, is, 'that if a ſmall vein hath its inſertion into a 'venal trunk much larger, the force of the current in this large 'veſſel, entirely ſtops the motion of the blood in the ſmall vein, 'although it is of ſome globules diameter, and hinders it from 'conveying its blood into the great trunk. This teacheth us 'why nature hath ordered, that the veins of one globule dia-'meter are never inſerted into trunks much larger than them-'ſelves; and why very ſmall branches re-unite, and form little 'trunks, which afterwards re-uniting, and forming a larger 'trunk, make a ſucceſſive gradation, thereby giving to the 'blood of the larger branches a force ſufficient to enter the 'trunks, notwithſtanding the reſiſting force of their currents. 'This ſhews the neceſſity of the thoracic duct, and ſtrengthens 'the opinion I have, that a ſmall lymphatic vein does not convey 'its blood into the *vena cava*, as ſome have ſuppoſed. The diſorders which the circulation of the blood undergoes in the veins, are pretty much the ſame as in the arteries, except that inanition is much leſs frequent in the former than in the latter. —In conſidering the oſcillatory motion of the blood, Dr. Haller takes occaſion to controvert Dr. Whytt's ſentiments upon this ſubject, and inſiſts, that this oſcillation, 'never takes place in an 'animal in health; and that it cannot be reckoned among the 'natural cauſes of the motion of the blood, but is præternatu-'ral, and a diſeaſe.' In what manner the laſt named gentleman has ſupported his opinion, may be ſeen in the fourteenth volume of our Review, page 331, ſeq.

In Chapter V. our Author enquires into the effects venæſection has in the courſe and direction of the blood: where he confirms the much-diſputed doctrine of Bellini, who held, that when 'a vein is opened, the blood of that vein, as alſo of the neigh-'bouring veins, and alſo that of the artery that furniſheth them 'with blood, acquires a new degree of velocity, and projects 'itſelf towards the orifice. By this means a great derivation of 'humours is made on the part where the vein is opened, and 'the other veins which have no communication therewith un-'dergo, by this means, a conſiderable revulſion.' With reſpect to the revulſion in the neighbouring veins, the Doctor imagines, his experiments put the queſtion paſt all doubt; and as to the revulſion on the arteries, the experiments relating to them, which cannot be made with ſufficient accuracy, ſeem to favour the ſame doctrine.

The profeſſed deſign of Chap. VI. is to inveſtigate the cauſes which give motion to the blood. Herein, after a minute deſcription of the ſyſtole and diaſtole of the heart, he endeavours to demonſtrate, that the *vena cava*, and the two ventricles

tricles always contract at the ſame inſtant of time, and not in ſucceſſion, as ſome have imagined. He alſo attempts to prove, that the arteries have no power in contributing to the motion of the blood; firſt, becauſe the arteries of frogs ſeem deſtitute of any power of contraction; and ſecondly, from the good health and regular pulſe of ſome men, whoſe arteries were oſſified. To the force of the heart, the actions of the muſcles, the influence of the nerves, cold, heat, and the weight of the blood, our Author ſeems to attribute its motion. But having, on a former occurrence, cited from the original the principal parts of what he has offered on this head, we ſhall refer the Reader to that quotation †.

The above, it is apprehended, will ſerve to convey a ſufficient idea of this performance, which undoubtedly had we no other proofs, abundantly evinces Dr. Haller's aſſiduity and ſagacity. Nevertheleſs, entertaining as theſe diſquiſitions muſt be, to an inquiſitive mind, and eſpecially to an Author more than a little ambitious of medical fame, we cannot help obſerving, even tho' we ſhould thereby render ourſelves ſuſpected of heretical notions in phyſic, that it is at leaſt a doubt, whether the art of healing would not be more benefitted by ſuch uſeful diſcoveries in the *materia medica*, as might facilitate the cure of diſeaſes, than by the moſt accurate of theſe minute reſearches into the inmoſt *penetralia* of nature.

† See Review, Vol. XIV. p. 330, Note.

Hiſtoire politique du Siécle, ou ſe trouvent en ordre, et ſous tous leurs raports diférens, les intérets, les vues & la conduite des principales puiſſances de l'Europe, depuis la paix de Weſtphalie, en 1648, *juſqu' a la paix d'Aix la Chapelle, en* 1748. *&c.* i. e.

The Political Hiſtory of the Age, exhibiting, under proper arrangements, and different heads, the intereſts, views, and Conduct of the principal powers of Europe; from the peace of Weſtphalia, in 1648, *to the peace of Aix la Chapelle, in* 1748, *incluſively. With a detail of the proceedings of the moſt able negotiators; the character and management of the moſt celebrated politicians, and the ſubſtance of all the treaties negotiated between the different courts, for a hundred years paſt. The whole eſtabliſhed on clear facts and plain inferences, from a citation of ſeveral acts, memoirs, and relations, with reſpect to ſuch points as have been moſt conteſted, and leaſt underſtood. Volume the Firſt.* 4to. 11. 1s.* London, printed for the Author, and ſold by J. Haberkorn, Gerrard-ſtreet, Soho.

* It has ſince been advertiſed for 12s. *ſewed.*

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THIS induſtrious Author having premiſed the great utility of political hiſtory, and the great difficulty of compoſing a good one, obſerves, in his preliminary diſcourſe, that though the peruſal of ſuch a hiſtory may not be ſufficient to prevent or extinguiſh the hatred, ambition, or jealouſy, of various powers or parties; yet, that nevertheleſs an accurate knowlege of that ſituation in which (from the ſyſtem of Europe) each power ſtands connected with, or oppoſed to, any of the reſt, might have ſometimes delayed, diverted, or have otherwiſe qualified the wars that have reſulted from their contentions.—He aſſures us, ſoon after, that he has been at great pains to eſtabliſh the certainty of the facts he has collected, as well as to increaſe his collections, in his travels through Germany and the Seven Provinces.—That he came to England purely to trace, from original records, the politics of a court, which has always been a conſiderable object in thoſe of other European courts; and whoſe conduct has engaged their attention for above thirty years of this preſent century.—That he has printed his book here, particularly, to avoid all ſtipulation with the licencers of books, in regard to the liberty which was neceſſary to a full accompliſhment of his deſign: for which purpoſe he has alſo printed it at his own expence. He affirms, he has been three years in giving the preſent form and finiſhing touches to his performance, which he hopes will prove both entertaining and uſeful to ſtateſmen and negotiators, as well as to their ſubalterns in politics; having endeavoured to render it neceſſary to as many young perſons, as their parts and education may otherwiſe qualify for any political employment in the ſtate. Among ſuch qualifications, it is too evident he includes a knowlege of the French language, ſince he chuſes it (probably from his better acquaintance with it, and from its more general uſe) to convey his political reſearches to Engliſhmen.

Our Author propoſing his work as an uſeful compendium of that voluminous heap of negotiations and treaties, occurring within the term to which he limits his political enquiries, muſt have intended of courſe to treat his ſubject no farther in detail than was neceſſary to a plain narration and eſtabliſhment of his facts, and to a clear diſplay of his own reaſonings on them. Taking this for granted then, we ſhall not attempt to give one formal abridgment of another, which is ſo extended as to make between five and ſix hundred pages in the firſt volume; in *all* the articles of which, this kingdom is far from being equally involved, and in *ſome* but very remotely, if at all, concerned. We ſhall, therefore, confine ourſelves, in general, to the contents of his different chapters, from whence thoſe which are moſt intereſting here, or moſt curious

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in themſelves, may be readily recurred to. 2. To interſperſe, in a very ſummary manner, a few of his characters, whence a judgment may be formed of his knowlege of men, the ſubjects of government, and objects of politics. 3. To cite, *en paſſant*, ſuch a ſpecimen of his reaſoning on the moſt intereſting events here, as may furniſh the public with ſome idea of his abilities as a political hiſtorian. And if theſe ſhall be thought as ſolid upon examination, as they are generally ſpecious to a curſory reader, it may probably lead to a tranſlation of his work, in a country where the art of politics does not ſeem to have attained its utmoſt poſſible perfection.

The firſt chapter, after an introduction to the hiſtory of the age, and a brief retroſpection of the ſtate of Europe in 1618, gives an account of, I. The conduct of Henry IV. of France. II. The ſtate of the queſtion in relation to the county of Cleves. III. The views of the houſe of Auſtria. IV. The diſpoſitions of both the parties, i. e. of the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon. V. The acceſſion of Matthias to the Imperial throne. VI. The diſpute about the Dutchy of Mantua, in 1612. VII. The conduct and war of the Venetians, on account of the Uſcoques.—Theſe were a ſort of Chriſtian pirates and robbers, who plundered the Turks only at firſt, in time of peace; but finding them ſoon upon their guard, they exerciſed their piracy on ſome Chriſtian ſtates, and particularly on the Venetians. VIII. The Spaniſh triumvirate in Italy, and the pretended conſpiracy againſt Venice.—This triumvirate conſiſted of Don Pedro de Toledo, Governor of Milan, the Duke of Oſſuna, Vice-roy of Naples, and the Marquis of Bedmar, the Ambaſſador of Spain to Venice. Our Author conſiders the conſpiracy as a romance, if it was not an abſurd impracticable project of the Duke of Oſſuna's. IX. The death of, and ſucceſſion to, the Emperor Matthias, and the declaration of the Spaniſh and Dutch on the affair of Cleves.

The ſecond chapter is entitled, The Conduct of the Princes during a thirty years war; and contains, under different ſections, after premiſing the election of the Emperor Ferdinand II. I. The coronation of the Elector Palatine, as King of Bohemia. II. The defeat of him and his party, and the conduct of the Emperor after it. III. The errors of James II. of England. IV. Thoſe of the council of France. V. The affair of the Valteline, which occurred in the firſt years of Richlieu's miniſtry. VI. The riſing of the Proteſtants in France. VII. The concluſion of the diſputes about Mantua, by the treaty of Quieraſque. VIII. The ſtate of the empire previous to the invaſion of it by Guſtavus Adolphus. IX. The invaſion by that Monarch, and the political conduct of the different powers intereſted in it, to his death. X. The politics of Richlieu, Oxenſtiern, and Wallen-

ſtein. XI. The conduct of the Princes before the declaration of France, which made the war general. XII. The renewal of the alliance between France and Sweden, and the preliminaries of the peace in 1643.

The third chapter is entitled,—The Negotiations and Treaties of Weſtphalia, between the Empire and Emperor, with their Allies, on the one part; and of France and Sweden, with their Allies, on the other.—The firſt ſection of it is employed on the objects of the negotiation, and the character of the negotiators; and it premiſes, that the treaty of Weſtphalia (which comprehends thoſe of Munſter and Oſnabruck) has ſettled the conſtitution of the empire. It makes the baſis of its politics; and that negotiation is the ſchool, as it were, of the imperial negotiators. Never, ſays our Author, were more important and perplexing intereſts to be diſcuſſed, and never were ſo many ſtateſmen aſſembled to diſcuſs them. For if we except Charles I. of England, who had already involved himſelf in misfortunes; Uladiſlaus of Poland, who had loſt his right of treating with foreign powers, without the concurrence of his Nobles; and the Czar of Muſcovy, very remote at the extremity of the Baltic, and then little known;—all Europe awaited the determinations that ſhould reſult from the conferences at Munſter and Oſnabruck. II. The circumſtances of the ſeveral powers. III. The tricks and chicanery of the Imperialiſts, previous to the propoſals of France and Sweden. IV. Their propoſals, with the anſwer and reply of the Imperialiſts. V. The particular negotiations of France and Sweden with the four Electors.—Theſe were the Duke of Bavaria, the Electors of Saxony, Treves, and Brandenburgh. VI. The laſt chicanes of the Imperialiſts and Spaniards. VII. The civil, political, and religious ſtate of the empire before the war of thirty years. VIII. The ſubſtance or ſummary of the treaties of Munſter and Oſnabruck. IX. The execution of them.—As this treaty of Weſtphalia aſcertained and ſecured the civil and religious rights of the Proteſtants in Germany, it is no wonder we are here told, the Pope and the council of Spain exerted their utmoſt politics, to deſtroy a treaty equally contrary to their intereſts. The former renounced the honour of being a mediator of it, and his Nuncio delivered to the Plenipotentiaries, a proteſtation of the nullity of the conceſſions granted to the Proteſtants. He anathematized the treaty and its negotiators; releaſed the Sovereigns and the Plenipotentiaries from their oaths; and promiſed his apoſtolical benediction to thoſe who ſhould prefer the *good of the church*, as he termed it, to the happineſs of mankind.—Such a frantic and irreligious conduct in this pretended Deſpot of Chriſtianity, this real opponent to the Prince of Peace, might well make all ſerious and conſiderate Chriſtians

Chriſtians exclaim, *Tantum religio potuit ſuadere malorum!* By virtue of this treaty, which gave peace to the empire, July 4, 1650, the proſelytes to a different communion in Germany were allowed at leaſt three years to diſpoſe of their effects, and to prepare their families and affairs for emigration, whether they requeſted it, or it was enjoined them; and it was in virtue of this article, ſays our Author, that the Biſhop of Saltzbourg has been in danger of ſeeing his country deſerted.

The fourth chapter treats of the negotiations and politics of Holland with France and Spain, from the truce of 1609, to the peace of 1648, in the following order.—I. The conduct of the Dutch for the ſecurity of their ſtate by a treaty. II. The internal condition of the republic. III. Their ſecret negotiations with Spain. IV. Why the ſtates made a particular peace with Spain, that is, without the participation and conſent of France. V. The intrigues on both ſides for and againſt ſigning the treaty.

The fifth chapter exhibits an hiſtorical memoir on the conſtitution of the republic, and on the ſtadtholderſhip, to the time of William II. under the following heads. I. The irregularity of the conſtitution of the republic. II. By what means William II. obtained the ſovereignty of Holland, Zeeland, and Utrecht. III. The little regard paid to the ſovereignty of William I. after his death. IV. The contract of the ſtates with Queen Elizabeth, and the conduct of the Earl of Leiceſter. V. The policy of Barneveldt, who excited Prince Maurice to ruin Leiceſter. VI. The political conduct of Maurice and Barneveldt till the truce of 1609. VII. Their enſuing differences.

The ſixth chapter treats of the conduct of the Stadtholder, William II.—And, I. Of his diſpoſitions after the treaty of Munſter, and the cauſes of his hatred to the city of Amſterdam. II. The ſtate of their differences in 1650. III. His firſt ſteps with a deſign to humble them. IV. The impriſonment of their ſix deputies, and his attempt upon the city. V. Their ſubſequent accommodation.—This chapter concludes with the death of the Stadtholder, who was ſeized with the ſmall-pox, but ſuſpected to be poiſoned in a glaſs of lemonade. The rumour was countenanced by Cardinal Mazarine, who hated the republicans, and had entered into a treaty with the Stadtholder, on the part of France, to guaranty the ſovereignty of Antwerp to him, which the Prince was to beſiege, and to join France in a war againſt Spain.—The republicans are ſaid here to have deſpiſed the report, and to have rejoiced in the occaſion of it, which delivered them from a Stadtholder, before he had any heir born, and who, they imagined, intended to ſubject the commonwealth; whence they reſolved, that the liberty of the United Provinces

could not ſubſiſt with that dangerous dignity, and ſo determined to aboliſh it.

The ſeventh chapter contains the proceedings of the republicans, until the repeal of the edict of excluſion in 1660, and the negotiations and treaty of the republic with Cromwell, in the following order. I. The new form of government; in which they were careful to obviate and guard againſt any re-claim, or pretenſion of right, in the poſthumous ſon of the late Stadtholder; the convention of the ſtates decreeing a general amneſty, in which they included the deceaſed Stadtholder and his adherents, and appointed, at their breaking up, a day of public thankſgiving, as the commencing æra of liberty to the republic. II. The motives of Cromwell for a war with Holland; and his apprehenſions from the continuance of it.—The former, our Author tells us, were to employ the Engliſh, and to divert them from attending too ſeriouſly to his conduct and title in a continued peace.—Had he joined France againſt Spain, ſays our Author, he muſt have overwhelmed a power neceſſary to the balance of Europe. Had he joined Spain, he muſt have furniſhed the greateſt part of the forces and expences, during a war very likely to prove tedious, that kingdom being in a manner exhauſted. War was then to be declared politically and popularly againſt Holland only, whoſe commerce and opulence he might hope to transfer to England; and whoſe trading companies had injured the commerce of other nations, by acts of oppreſſion and cruelty. In conſequence of this deſign, the famous act of navigation was paſſed Sept. 9, 1651, which, our Author ſays, will perpetuate the memory of Cromwell more than all the great actions of the interregnum. III. The political meaſures of Cromwell and the Dutch republicans, during the war.—Here we find the reaſon of Cromwell's apprehenſions from the continuance of the Dutch war: for our Author obſerves, that as the expence of the firſt year's war had coſt the States more than forty years open war againſt Spain, the republican-party, terrified with the danger and expence of a ſecond, for which they might be called to account, concluded they ſhould be unable to prevail againſt the demand of the people to re-eſtabliſh a Stadtholder: and as John de Witt, who was always vehement againſt one, had procured the propoſal of Charles II. (who offered to join his quarrel to theirs, and to embark for England in their fleet) to be rejected in an aſſembly of the States, Cromwell apprehended, that if the Stadtholder's party ſhould maſter the republicans, they would join with France to re-place Charles on the throne of his anceſtors: In conſequence of which enſued, IV. The negotiation and tenor of the treaty of the two Republics, by which the Dutch agreed to the excluſion of a Stadtholder; to refuſe an aſylum to

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any of Cromwell's enemies; to acknowlege the ſuperiority of the Engliſh flag; and to pay a large ſum to the Engliſh, for the expences of the war. The Vth, and laſt, ſection, conſiders the ſituation of the Dutch with regard to other powers.

The eighth chapter, entitled, The Conduct and Negotiations of France and Spain, from the peace of Munſter to that of the Pyrenees, in 1659, relates, I. The firſt advances of France, and of Spain, to Cromwell. II. His character and manner of governing.—Our Author agrees with all Hiſtorians, in allowing him great courage and talents, and refers in the margin to a manuſcript of —— Berkley's, in Ludlow, to prove his certain purpoſe to come to an accommodation with the King, (much indeed, to his own advantage) before his interception of a letter, in which he diſcovered the King's determination to make him the firſt object of his vengeance, on his re-eſtabliſhment: whence of courſe he determined for the ſecureſt alternative. But he thinks his enthuſiaſm entirely aſſumed, and politic; quoting the following anecdote from Oliver St. John, in proof of it, viz. That being one day at table with his friends, and looking for the cork of a bottle of champaign, which he had opened, on being informed, that ſome perſon attended for admittance to ſee him, 'Tell him,' ſays Cromwell, 'we are in ſearch of the Holy 'Spirit.' III. The treaty between France and Cromwell. IV. The condition of Spain, and the artifice of Cardinal Mazarin, for diſpoſing that crown to offer the Infanta to the King. V. A ſummary of the treaty of the Pyrenees, with the extraordinary punctilios of it, and the great chicane and artifice of both parties; Don Lewis de Haro, the Spaniſh Ambaſſador, appearing, in the concluſion, a deeper politician than Mazarin.

The ninth chapter relates to the affairs of the North, before the peace of Oliva; but finding this, on a curſory peruſal, leſs intereſting here, and pretty long, we proceed to

The tenth chapter, entitled, the re-eſtabliſhment of the Monarchy in England, &c. This is almoſt wholly relative to the ſtate of theſe kingdoms, which it conſiders in the following ſeries. I. The condition of Great-Britain at the death of Cromwell. II. The enſuing Anarchy. III. The conduct and character of General Monk.—Our Author, on this occaſion, diſſents from many Hiſtorians, who aſcribe ſeveral parts of Monk's conduct to a profound and neceſſary diſſimulation, which, he ſuppoſes, the conſequences of irreſolution and timidity. He grants General Monk underſtood the profeſſion of a ſoldier, to which he ſolely applied himſelf; but thinks his great advancement was ſo far from being owing to any ſuperiority of genius, that his underſtanding was rather contracted, and his faculties

ſlow: whence it may be wondered that Charles II. ſhould aſcribe a revolution to Monk, which would have taken place, tho' two months later, not only without his concurrence, but in ſpite of his oppoſition. It was only falling in with the general bent of a people utterly tired of inteſtine trouble and anarchy. But, on the other hand, ſays our Author, to effect the cataſtrophe of Charles I. and to extinguiſh the Monarchy, it was neceſſary to counteract ſome fundamental laws of the nation, and to get the better of certain notions which had been long and highly reverenced: whence genius in forming expedients, and vigour in the execution of them, became indiſpenſible. The fourth ſection treats of the reſtoration of Charles II. The 5th, of the faults of the nation in regard to his reſtoration.—By theſe faults are principally meant their being content with his general promiſe of an act of oblivion, and liberty of conſcience; their making no ſtipulations for their liberty and privileges; and neglecting, when they allowed him to ſatisfy his vengeance on his father's Judges, to make any diſtinction between the crime of his Judges, and the cauſes to which they pretended to have made that great ſacrifice. This, he well obſerves, was to pronounce againſt the nation, as they had againſt Charles I. and to authorize the ſon to begin where the father left off. For by the oath impoſed by his ſecond Parliament, on all Communities and Officers, by which they interdicted taking up arms againſt him, *on any pretence whatſoever*, he became ſovereign Arbiter of all perſons and things, and in all circumſtances: which, as our Author obſerves, might have diſpoſed any Prince, but ſuch a lover of his repoſe, to have made a bold ſtroke for deſpotic power.

The ſixth ſection mentions the firſt money Charles received from France, and his motives for ſelling Dunkirk. Part of the blame of this ſhameful impolitic ſale, our Author endeavours to lay on the Parliament, in granting the King too little money; and in the bargain for it, he ſhews the ſuperior negociation of the Count D'Eſtrades, to that of the King and Chancellor Hide. VII. The negociation, and enſuing treaty, for the ſale.

The eighth, and laſt ſection, contains the character of Charles II, the Author premiſing, that the nation will never forgive him the ſale of Dunkirk, [of which we experience the preſent bad conſequences] and for which, he acknowleges, other Powers have cenſured him. The character itſelf will ſeem to be drawn with great candour on that Prince's ſide, by his enemies; but it muſt be allowed, our Author does not ſuppreſs thoſe weakneſſes he ſeems willing to qualify. That Prince certainly was of a very mixed character; and, as this Writer obſerves, his foibles and miſconduct ought not to cancel the memory of his better qualities.

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He concludes his character thus—The evils which Charles II. did, certainly diſcredit the eulogies which the Royaliſts have laviſhed on him, while thoſe which he might have done with impunity, and did not, give the lie to that hideous portrait of him which the Preſbyterians have drawn. The nation owes it to herſelf not to blame him without reſtriction, and to bewail him, even while ſhe hates him.

The eleventh chapter contains the political conduct of Lewis XIV. to 1667; the war of the Dutch with England and the Biſhop of Munſter, and the Peace of Breda, in the following ſeries.—I. An idea of the Court of France after the death of Mazarin—when it appears that Colbert became in effect the firſt Miniſter. II. The intereſt of France, with regard to other Powers, after the Treaty of the Pyrenees—Our Author conſiders this period as one, in which the affairs of France were in the moſt flouriſhing ſituation; and from which that Crown might have hoped for every thing, if their Miniſtry had, by an appearance of great moderation, prevented the Imperial Miniſtry from exciting the Germanic Body to enter into their views; and if Lewis XIV. contenting himſelf to eſtabliſh his frontier by degrees, had concealed that ambitious and invading ſpirit, which alarmed all the Princes of the Empire. III. The political Meaſures of France with regard to England.—This ſection plainly evinces the ſuperior policy of the French Court to that of Charles II. his Chancellor, and Council: it gives a judicious abſtract of a very ſpirited and ſenſible letter of Lewis to the Count D'Eſtrades, his Miniſter here; and ſhews the very diſadvantageous ſituation to which that Monarch's conduct, and the foibles of Charles II. had reduced the latter. IV. The political Conduct of France, with regard to Holland.—This ſection includes the ſubſtance of that treaty with France, ſo ſeemingly favourable, and even partial, to the Dutch, concluded in April 1662, by which France guarantied their Fiſhery; by which all the Hollanders became naturalized in France; and enjoyed ſuch extraordinary advantages, that Lewis might very plauſibly avow, the Dutch Ambaſſadors had taken too much advantage of his affection for, and his confidence in, their Maſters. But, as our Author very juſtly remarks, theſe conceſſions were truly ambitious, and inſidious in their conſequences. The obligation became reciprocal on the Dutch to favour the French Merchants in Holland, and to contribute to the eſtabliſhment and operations of their commercial Companies. It became impoſſible for them to refuſe aſſiſting a Prince, in his deſign of forming a Marine, who had engaged to ſuccour them, in caſe of a maritime war. The French Sailors ſerved on board their ſhips and fleets, and returned to France to inſtruct their

countrymen by their experience. The arſenals and artificers of Holland alſo furniſhed and built ſhips for Lewis XIV. who knew ſo well how to avail himſelf of this treaty, ſeemingly ſo diſadvantageous to him, that it produced the very means of his deſpiſing any future hoſtility from the Republic, and farthered his project of ſubjecting her at pleaſure.

The fifth ſection relates to the war between England and Holland, which, our Author ſays, Charles began piratically, and concluded with weakneſs: tho' he credits the King for the flouriſhing ſtate of the Engliſh marine.

The ſixth ſection, ſhews in what manner the French fulfilled their defenſive treaty with Holland. Van Beuningen, their Ambaſſador, on his firſt application for aſſiſtance, received a poſitive denial of any, except the Dutch would aſſert the King's rights to the Low-Countries. And after great chicane and evaſion on the part of France, we are told, it was only the ſmall ſucceſs of the Dutch fleet, and his apprehenſion of increaſing the ſuperiority of England too much, which prevented their taking King Charles's part; after the Penſionary had abſolutely declared againſt any new treaty in relation to the Barrier. However, when D'Eſtrades, then in Holland, thought the artifice had been carried to the utmoſt it would bear, and wrote to court, that the people began to be alienated from France; that the States threatned ſome future revenge; and that the miſcarriage of the ſecond Dutch fleet would be very likely to deſtroy the Penſionary and his Party, the French ſent Pradel, with ſix thouſand ſoldiers, againſt the Biſhop of Munſter: but he was inſtructed not to fight, but to bribe the Biſhop's forces: and after exhauſting every fineſſe and ſubtilty, France was reduced to declare war againſt England in 1666, Lewis being apprehenſive, on the death of Philip IV. of Spain, in September 1665, that the States would otherwiſe enter into ſuch an alliance with Spain and England as their common intereſt required. We are informed, however, that the aſſiſtance granted was very trivial, the Dutch Admiral being ſcarcely able to obtain a fire-ſhip, inſtead of the aſſiſtance hoped, from the French fleet. Nevertheleſs, the Dutch fleet, under de Ruyter and de Witt, having ſurprized, taken, and burnt, ſeveral ſhips of war, &c. in the Thames; and King Charles having exhauſted his ſubſidies, (which, our Author inſinuates, were employed on ſome other objects as well as war) ſent his Plenipotentiaries to treat of peace at Breda, in 1667, the ſubſtance of which treaty is compriſed in the ſeventh and laſt ſection of this chapter.

The

The title or argument of the twelfth chapter, is,—The triple alliance, oppoſed to the pretenſions of Lewis XIV. on the Low-Countries, and the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1668.

The firſt ſection, in a detail of the ſtate of the queſtion, informs us, that the French Court had not concealed from the Dutch, at their firſt propoſitions for the alliance of 1661, their deſign to poſſeſs themſelves of part of Flanders, in the name of the Infanta Queen, whoſe rights they had renounced by the treaty of the Pyrenees, in 1659. But as the date of that renunciation was too recent to ſuggeſt a nullity of it, they founded their claim on the non-payment of her fortune, and on the nature of Fiefs, which they called allodial Effects, and which, they ſaid, could not be compriſed in a renunciation of the Monarchy. The ſecond exhibits the ſtate of the Court of Spain. The third, the conduct of the French Court. The fourth, the maſterly conduct of John de Witt. The fifth enters into a detail of the motives which altered the conduct of Charles II. of England; the Negociations of Sir William Temple, and the treaty of the Triple Alliance; and the laſt recounts the views conducive to the treaty of Aix la Chapelle, in 1668, and the tenor of it.

The thirteenth chapter is intitled, the Revolutions of Portugal to the treaty of Liſbon, by which the Duke of Braganza was acknowleged as King, by the name of John IV. Its contents are, 1. The ſtate of Portugal under the Spaniſh Kings. 2. A brief detail of the revolution in Portugal in 1640. 3. The differences, and conduct, of the Dutch with Portugal, and their treaty of 1661. 4. The conduct of France and England, with regard to Portugal. 5. The depoſal of Alphonſo, and the treaty of Portugal in 1667 with France, and in 1668 with Spain.

The fourteenth chapter is intitled, the Intrigues and Negociations of France, from the peace of Aix la Chapelle, in 1668, to her invaſion of the United Provinces in 1672. It exhibits, firſt, an idea of that ſort of probity neceſſary to a Stateſman, which includes in effect a perfect attachment to his own country, and ſuch a ſuſpicion of all foreign Negociators, as may rather diſpoſe him to take them at an advantage, than to be liable to any impoſition from them. Having given the amiable character of John de Witt, and his ſufficience in the former part, he adds ſeveral inſtances of his deficiency in the latter. 2. The ſituation of Holland at this period. 3. The conduct of France towards the Republic. 4. The intrigues of the Council of France in that of England.—This ſection, containing the facts, and baſe conſequences, of French Money and Miſtreſſes, and concluding with the ſhutting up the Exchequer, muſt be read with

deteſtation

deteſtation by every good Engliſhman, and confound the warmeſt admirers of Charles II. 5. The negociations of France in the Empire. 6. The different political efforts of the Penſionary de Witt.

The fifteenth chapter relates to the commotions in Holland, from the revocation of the Edict of Excluſion in 1660, to the re-eſtabliſhment of the Stadtholderſhip in 1672: and firſt diſcuſſes the political conduct of both parties, to 1667. 2. The Edict of perpetual Excluſion: the triumph of the republican party: Preſages of its fall; and of the elevation of the Houſe of Orange. 3. The laſt efforts of the Penſionary, the command of the army being given to the Prince. 4. His being proclaimed Stadtholder, and the maſſacre of the De Witts.—On this occaſion he cenſures the Prince as cruel, and the Penſionary as inflexible to a fault.—Indeed his oppoſition to a Stadtholderſhip had ſo entirely engroſſed him, that he ſeemed, notwithſtanding his great love of his country, to have paid too little regard to ſuch a particular ſituation of it, as might have rendered that office, at leaſt for that juncture, indiſpenſably neceſſary.

The ſixteenth chapter is intitled, the Conduct and Negociations of the different Powers, from 1672, to the Peace of Nimeguen in 1678-9.

Section I. mentions the war which Lewis XIV. and Charles II. declared againſt the Republic, in 1672, and the firſt operations of the allied Kings. II. The ſubmiſſion of the Dutch, and the overſights of the French Council. III. The Declaration of the Emperor, and the Princes of the Empire: and the Congreſs of Cologn. IV. The political events till the diſſolution of that Congreſs in 1674. V. The political events before the declaration of the firſt propoſals in 1677. VI. The negociation and treaty of Nimeguen.—Theſe points, which then intereſted the greateſt part of Europe, are treated in a methodical detail; and the terms obtained by Holland at Nimeguen, after their country had been nearly conquered by France, and after the miſerable conditions then dictated to their inſulted Deputies, demonſtrate, that France had been conſiderably exhauſted by the preceding war.

The ſeventeenth chapter is intitled, The Conduct and Politics of Lewis XIV. and of William Prince of Orange, from the Peace of Nimeguen to the Truce of twenty years in 1684: and contains,—1. Some erroneous notions of the Council of France, after the peace of Nimeguen. 2. The condition of the Republic. 3. The firſt political conflict between Lewis and the Prince of Orange, with regard to the alliance.—This was

an alliance propoſed by the former to the States, in order to counterwork the League, which the latter endeavoured to bring them into, for the ſecurity of the peace of Nimeguen.—4. The management of the Prince, for a general confederacy againſt France. 5. The projects aſcribed to Lewis, and the great miſtakes of his Council. 6. The proceedings of Lewis, and the falſity of the projects aſcribed to him.—The chief of theſe was, a ſuppoſed deſign to depoſe Leopold, and to transfer the Imperial Crown to the Dauphin.—7. A political ſtruggle between the Prince and the Count d'Avaux, the French Ambaſſador, in which the former is worſted. This conſiſted in his preventing, by the ſingle negative of the city of Amſterdam, the raiſing of 16000 troops, to which, at the inſtance of the Prince, all the other Deputies had conſented.---8. The laſt efforts of the Prince of Orange for an aſſociation againſt France, and the concluſion of a truce for twenty years.

The argument of the eighteenth chapter, is, the dethronement of James II. and the political conduct of William in bringing about the revolution---which it treats of in the following order, 1. The principal cauſes of the Revolution.—Our Author will ſcarcely be credited among us, in aſſerting, that the Prince of Orange was the principal cauſe of the diſorders here, which he came to appeaſe; and the promoter of that very tyranny, which he profeſſed to aboliſh. In confirmation of which notion, he refers to Mr. Hume in the margin, as the firſt Engliſh Hiſtorian, who was ſenſible of the prejudice of the Engliſh, in attributing the downfall of James to his deference for Lewis XIV.—2. The character of James, and the conduct of William, after the death of the Duke of Monmouth.—The King's character is laboured into ſome antitheſis and contradiction, the Author charging him with infirmities directly oppoſite to thoſe which have been aſcribed to him; and yet we can ſcarcely impute this to partiality, when he ſays of him, 'that without genius, 'and without any certain character, he had in his head and heart, 'that mixture of loftineſs and littleneſs which beſpeaks our con-'tempt.' He ſays, the Prince of Orange ſhould have been his Tutor, which he thinks might eaſily have been effected (but which does not ſeem quite probable to us): and concludes, that the Parliament, which deprived him of the Crown, would have puniſhed him more properly, by putting him under Guardianſhip. In detailing the Prince's meaſures, he allows him indefatigable application, and makes him a much better Politician than a Man. But we think it is ſhort of hiſtorical candour, to take the conduct and character of a Prince, whoſe conſtant object was to contract the power of France, and reſtrain the ambition of Lewis XIV. from the Memoirs of the Count D'Avaux,

vaux, Lewis's Ambaſſador at the Hague,—which our Author ſeems almoſt entirely to have done.—The third ſection relates the Prince's preparations for England; and obſerves the continual blindneſs of the Council of France, who are repreſented to have deſpiſed all the information of D'Avaux, on the proceedings of the Prince; our Author obſerving, this Ambaſſador, like Caſſandra, was always a true prophet, but never believed.—The laſt ſection contains a ſummary of the proofs of the ſmall intelligence preſerved between King James and Lewis XIV.

The nineteenth chapter relates to the League of Augſburg; the affairs of Rome, and of Cologn; and the peace of Ryſwick, which it details in the following order. 1. The previous circumſtances conducing to the League, and the manner in which it was formed. 2. The differences between Lewis XIV. and Innocent XI. 3. The affairs of Cologn, and the commencement of the war. 4. The affairs of England, and the retreat of King James. 5. The treaty of the Grand Alliance, [which happened immediately on the coronation of King William III.] and a ſummary of the principal operations of the war. 6. The internal ſtate of France; and a particular treaty with the Duke of Savoy, whom France ſeduced from the Grand Alliance, by the entire evacuation of Piedmont and Savoy; the reſtitution of Pignerol and Caſal; by offering him the honours paid to crowned Heads; by accepting a Princeſs of Savoy for wife to the Duke of Burgundy; and by four millions of ready caſh, by way of indemnification. This treaty, which was called, the Neutrality of Italy, diſpoſed the Confederates to (7.) the enſuing negociation and treaty of Peace at Ryſwick, after a war of nine years, in which Lewis had won every battle: whence he may juſtly be ſaid to have given a peace, though, his enemies preſcribing the conditions of it, the Conqueror ſeemed the only loſer at the end.

The twentieth and laſt chapter contains a ſummary of the affairs of Hungary and Poland; and ends with the peace of the Emperor, &c. with the Turks at Carlowitz, in 1699. Our Author generouſly obſerves here, to the honour of the Turks, that they took no pains to diſguiſe the need they had of peace, but propoſed the conditions on which they demanded it, with a noble ſimplicity: the Mediators, the Engliſh and Dutch, moderated the demands of their enemies. They gave up Tranſylvania to the Emperor; but when he demanded that Count Tekeli ſhould be delivered to him; as a final anſwer to it, the Turk declared, he had given that famous Malecontent new titles of honour, with a ſufficient appenage to ſupport their dignity, having aſſigned him three cities in Bulgaria, with their territories, for the ſupport of his houſhold; and adding, that he ſhould treat him,

him, in every reſpect, like a Prince: nor would the Sultan have any guaranty of the treaty but himſelf. A conduct, upon the whole, of that true honour, and genuine greatneſs, which might be recommended, as a model, to Chriſtian Powers in general!

Thus have we contracted the matter of this large volume into little more than the heads or contents of it; which, however, have unavoidably ſwelled upon us. There can be no doubt, but it has coſt the Author much time and aſſiduity to compile and digeſt; his numerous authorities, and the dates of the moſt material occurrences, being generally referred to in the margin. It ſeems, indeed, probable, that he intended to execute his work with great impartiality; as we imagine none of his Readers will find all their political attachments gratified in his detail of every fact, or in his own reflexions on them;—while many, who differ from each other in ſuch attachments and notions, will coincide with him in different relations and inferences: a circumſtance, which, upon the whole, muſt be rather in this Writer's favour: ſince there can be no doubt, from the condition of human nature, but that all Powers and Parties have ſometimes, more or leſs, ſwerved from juſtice, wiſdom, and truth. He promiſes, towards the end of his preliminary diſcourſe, to publiſh the ſecond volume, which will end with the peace of Aix la Chapelle, in 1748, before the expiration of the preſent year: and to the third volume, which will compleat the work, will be added a collection of particular anecdotes, which he has not judged proper to inſert in ſuch a manner as might interrupt the courſe of his narration.

An Eſſay on Currents at Sea; by which it appears, there is Reaſon to apprehend, that the Sea is not a Fluid in a State of Reſt, except thoſe Motions which are cauſed by the Impulſe of Winds, and that known by the Name of Tides: And conſequently, that this Earth is not of an uniform Denſity, according to the Suppoſition of Sir Iſaac Newton; but that the Currents of the Gulph of Florida, alſo on the Coaſt of Brazil, and the Northern Indraught on the Weſtern Coaſt, are Currents of Circulation, kept up by different Denſities in this Earth, and its Motion round its Axis. By Joſeph Mead. 8vo. 1s. Marſhal.

THOSE who have been converſant in the practice of Navigation, well know that ſhips are often hurried away by unknown Currents, which ſometimes proves of the moſt fatal con-

conſequence; but were we acquainted with all the Currents, their courſe and velocity, we ſhould be often enabled to guard againſt thoſe misfortunes, and correct the Dead Reckoning from a good Obſervation, with much more certainty.

Our Author, in the little treatiſe before us, has endeavoured to give a new theory of Currents; and in order to this, he attempts to prove, First, That the commonly received maxim of the Ocean's being a fluid in a ſtate of reſt, except what is cauſed by the impulſe of the winds, and that known by the name of tides, is falſe in fact. Secondly, That the earth is not of an uniform denſity. After removing ſeveral difficulties, he forms the following hypotheſis, namely, That there is a Circulation of the Sea, carried on by means of ſubterranean communications between places near the Equator and thoſe in high Latitudes; entering at the ends of thoſe caverns near the Poles, and iſſuing at thoſe neareſt the Equator; and, conſequently, the Sea, on the external parts, has a motion from the Equator towards the Poles.

This hypotheſis he endeavours to ſupport from experience, by ſhewing that there is actually ſuch a motion in the external parts of the Sea, from the Equator toward the North Pole; and that the northern mouths of theſe ſubterraneous caverns are ocularly demonſtrated by the Maleſtrom, and other whirlpools in ſeveral parts of the Northern Ocean.

With regard to the former, namely, That the Sea has a real motion from the Equators toward the Poles, he relates the following occurence, which, he ſays, he had from the Commander of a Merchant-ſhip, who was allowed to be a Seaman of good repute in the Port of Liverpool.

'It was in the month of November, or beginning of December, in or near the year 1735, the Hope of, and bound for, Liverpool, from the river Shirbro on the coaſt of Guinea, with Camwood and ſome Elephants teeth, had a good Obſervation, by which they found they had the north Channel open; the wind continued to blow ſtrong between the South and Weſt, but moſt inclined to the former. Having no other Obſervation for ſix days, in which time they carried ſail continually. Then, by their Reckoning, they judged they ſhould fall in with Cape Clear, on the ſouth-weſt coaſt of Ireland, or to windward thereof; but in the following night they fell in with the Horſe-Rock to the weſtward of the Blaſques, [on the weſtern coaſt of Ireland] and were ſo near, that in wearing their ſhip (to ſtand to the weſtward) the ſea was reverberated from the Rock on board their ſhip.'

The

The cauſe of their making the Blaſques inſtead of Cape Clear, our Author imputes to the Northern Indraught; and is of opinion, that, if proper Obſervations were made, we ſhould find that all ſhips are carried to the northward in a like inſenſible manner. But, in our opinion, this inſtance is far from being ſufficient to prove a Northern Indraught; for Cape Clear lies in Latitude 51 Deg. 18 Min. North, Longitude 9 Deg. 50 Min. Weſt; and the Blaſques in 52 Deg. 0 Min. N. Longitude 11 Deg. 56 Min. W. conſequently their error in Latitude was 0 Deg. 42 Minutes; and in Longitude 2 Deg. 6 Min. Now tho' the error of 42 Min. might be reaſonably imputed to a Northern Indraught, yet the error of 2 Deg. 6 Min. in Longitude, could not proceed from thence; and, conſequently, thoſe who committed the latter, may be juſtly ſuſpected of having alſo committed the former. Beſides, this relation is told in too ſuperficial a manner to eſtabliſh a point of this importance to Navigation: we are neither informed of the place of the ſhip when they made their laſt Obſervation, nor the Inſtrument with which it was taken. If they made uſe of Davis's Quadrant, the common Inſtrument at that time, the Obſervation cannot be depended upon to leſs than ten Minutes, eſpecially if the Horizon was at that time hazy; and, conſequently, the error in Latitude may be conſiderably leſſened.

Nor does Mr. Mead ſeem to have been more fortunate in proving that the Maleſtrom, and other Whirlpools, are the mouths of ſubterranean channels, by which a circulation is carried on. Biſhop Pontoppidan, in his Natural Hiſtory of Norway*, has given ſufficient reaſon to believe, that the Maleſtrom is not the mouth of a ſubterraneous paſſage: of which our Author could not be ignorant, becauſe he has quoted this very work; and, conſequently, ought to have anſwered the Biſhop's objections, before he had taken that for granted which is denied.

We ſhall not follow our Author through the other parts of his pamphlet, becauſe if theſe propoſitions are not granted, his whole hypotheſis will fall to the ground; and, we imagine, they will require much ſtronger obſervations to ſupport them, than thoſe offered by Mr. Mead.

* See the ſubſtance of what the Biſhop has ſaid on this ſubject, in the Review, Vol. XII. p. 454.

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An Eſſay towards a general Hiſtory of Feudal Property in Great-Britain. *By* John Dalrymple, Eſq; 8vo. 5s. Millar.

THE progreſs of the laws relating to land-property in England and in Scotland, as the Author obſerves in the preface to this work, is the more to be attended to, 'becauſe 'untill the ſubjects of both countries have a knowledge of each 'others laws, there never will be a perfect union of the two 'kingdoms.' But beſides ſo deſirable an end, 'it appeared, 'that a law once ſo univerſal, and ſtill ſo much revered, during 'the progreſs of which men arrived from the moſt rude to the 'moſt poliſhed ſtate of ſociety; a law which has been the cauſe 'of the greateſt revolutions both civil and military; a law con-'nected equally with the manners and with the governments of 'modern Europe, deſerved an enquiry in the Republic of Letters.' Two of the greateſt names * in the learned world are mentioned, whoſe inſpection of this work, muſt greatly recommend it to the public, and do honour to the Author.

The firſt chapter of this Eſſay contains the hiſtory of the introduction of the Feudal Syſtem into Great-Britain. A ſpecies, it is obſerved, rather than a peculiarity, of the manners and inſtitutions of the ancient Germans at home, added to a perfect peculiarity of ſituation, when they ſettled in the conquered countries, was the cauſe of this peculiar ſyſtem. The thought of diſtributing among a conquering people, the lands they have conquered, and annexing to the gift, a condition of military ſervice, being in itſelf a ſimple one, it has been often reduced into practice. But as the colonies from all other conquering nations either conformed to the civil laws of the conquered people, reſerving to themſelves the political and military adminiſtration; or retained their own laws among themſelves, leaving to the conquered the enjoyment of theirs; ſuch a regulation could not be the foundation of that ſyſtem of laws which the peculiar circumſtances attending the Germans, in their tranſmigrations, produced. The Author's account of the matter is as follows, which we ſhall give our Readers in his own words, as a ſpecimen of his manner of writing.

'As there was no general ſyſtem of government in their own 'country, they had been ſubjected, in their various diſtricts, to 'that Chieftain who could do them moſt good, or moſt hurt: 'When they iſſued abroad then, they went rather as a band of 'independent Clans, than of independent Members, with a 'ſpirit of Oligarchy, and not of Equality.——Simple both in 'their manners and in their views, they could have no concep-'tion of a ſtanding army, with the expence and diſcipline, and

* The Preſident Monteſquieu, and Lord Kaims; to the latter of whom this Work is dedicated.

'reſources neceſſary to ſupport it. On the contrary, having 'quitted their own country, in vaſt bodies, from neceſſity, 'and being in queſt merely of a habitation, they took up with 'the more ſimple thought of ſpreading themſelves all over the 'country, among the ancient inhabitants. As the nations 'they conquered were more numerous, ſo were they likewiſe 'more poliſhed, and expert in arts, than themſelves; there-'fore they durſt not put ſuch nations to the ſword. Unac-'quainted even with commerce itſelf, they were ſtill more un-'acquainted with the refinement of being made the inſtruments 'of it to others. As long as the moſt diſtant views to their 'native country remained, and as long as continual danger ob-'liged them to be ready for continual defence, the poſſeſſions, it 'is true, upon the death of tenants, could not regularly deſcend 'to their heirs, who, perhaps, were not able to defend them, 'but would be given to thoſe in general, who appeared the moſt 'likely to be able to do ſo; yet, when in courſe of time, that 'connection came entirely to ceaſe, and this bravery was not ſo 'continually neceſſary, then the poſſeſſions we are ſpeaking of, 'in contradiction to all others in the hiſtory of the world, which 'have any reſemblance to feudal ones, became hereditary. Be-'ing an army, theſe conquerors naturally fell into a ſubordi-'nation in their ſettlement: valiant, their genius as well as ſitu-'ation led them to inſtitutions, which made it an obligation 'upon almoſt the whole body, to be ready at a military call; 'and that ſettlement, ſubordination, and obligation to military 'ſervice, carried in themſelves a ſyſtem of laws, without the 'plan of a legiſlator; which, however, the laws of the con-'quered people might for ſome time ſubſiſt, could not in the 'end but ſwallow up all the laws of all the countries where it 'came.'

Having thus accounted for the riſe of the feudal ſyſtem, our Author next attempts to reconcile the different opinions concerning its introduction into England, viz. whether it was eſtabliſhed among the Saxons, or firſt introduced by the Norman conqueſt? His opinion is, (and his reaſons in ſupport of it appear to be ſolid) that it had footing in the time of the Saxons, though many of the lands of England continued ſtill to be allodial, and the feudal connections and dependencies but as yet incomplete.

This backward ſtate of the feudal inſtitutions among the Saxons, he accounts for from their diſpoſition to cruelty, which led them to put many of the inhabitants wantonly to the ſword, and drive many more into France and Wales. Hence more land becoming vacant than they could poſſeſs, their Chieftains would not, for a grant of land, ſubmit to the ſevere feudal regulations;

add to this, that they conſidered themſelves as aſſociates of their Princes, who were little better than Plunderers, rather than their ſubjects; from which circumſtance aroſe that degree of equality, which is ſo inconſiſtent with the feudal ſyſtem, and with the rights of the ſuperior Lord. Such was the ſtate of the feudal laws among the Saxons.

But William the Conqueror came from a country where the greater power of the Prince had ſooner conſtituted the feudal ſervices and emoluments over the Crown-vaſſals, and where the rights of the Rear-vaſſalage had time to ripen. He introduced many of the laws of his own country into his new dominions. This, together with the important effects of ſome general alterations made by William, led Antiquarians to imagine, that under him the feudal ſyſtem firſt took place.

With equal reaſon, we think, our Author maintains its gradual progreſs in every other country in Europe, and particularly in Scotland, that before the reign of Malcolm II. the Primordia of the Fiefs were advanced in much the ſame degree as before the time of William the Conqueror, they were advanced in England; but that Malcolm 'put the laſt hand to, and completed the feudal ſtructure.'

Chap. II. contains the hiſtory of Tenures, in which are firſt conſidered, the different ſpecies of them, their progreſs, and by what natural cauſes it came to paſs, that beſide the ſoldiers, who were originally the ſole objects of regular Tenure, the other orders of Huſbandmen, Artizans, and Clergy, became each the object of a diſtinct Tenure. Theſe are the four ſimple forms of Tenure in the law; the three laſt were introduced and extended by the more peaceable and humane genius of the ſucceeding times. The ſame genius produced a great alteration in military Tenures. The ſervices for grants of land, which at firſt were indefinite, became afterwards definite, and ſo occaſioned different names being given to military Tenures, according to their diſtinctions. Thus, from the kind of ſervice, ſome lands were ſaid to be held by *Caſtle-guard*: others by *great Serjeantry*; but the greateſt part by *Eſcuage*, or, on condition of perſonally attending the King in foreign expeditions.

As the ſeverity of the feudal law declined, the vaſſals by *Eſcuage* in England, ſent deputies, inſtead of attending in perſon, upon their Superiors. Afterwards, inſtead of attendance, a compenſation in money was given to the Lord, according to an aſſeſſment determined by Parliament. To elude the heavy exactions of their Superiors for this compenſation, the vaſſals invented the *Eſcuage-certain*, by which they became bound in the charter to pay a certain ſtated ſum of money, in lieu of attend-

ance.

since. Where the compoſition was regulated by aſſeſſment of Parliament, the *Eſcuage* was called *Uncertain.*

As the *Eſcuage-uncertain* continued ſubject to the incident of *Ward* and *Marriage*, it came to be a ſtrange mixture of *Military* and *Soccage Holding.*

In the Scotch law, owing to the wars with England, the obligations to military ſervice continued very long, while the burthens of *Ward* and *Marriage* decreaſed, and *Tax-ward*, a mixture of *military* and *ſoccage Tenure*, like the *Eſcuage-uncertain* of the Engliſh, was introduced.

The ſame advancement of the intereſt of the vaſſal, produced likewiſe a conſiderable alteration in *Soccage-Tenure*; for whereas, originally, the King and Lords, when they granted their lands to be held in *Soccage*, received the full value for that grant, the rent became, by degrees, ſo ſmall, that in the end people got into the practice of laying aſide a rent altogether, and took an eluſory duty, as a roſe, a pair of ſpurs, &c. if demanded; which produced the holding called *Blench*, both in England and Scotland.

After this general view of the progreſs of the different ſpecies of Tenures, our Author conſiders the more immediate fruits and perquiſites of them. In the commencements of the feudal ſyſtem, the grants of lands were good no longer than for the life of the vaſſal. Afterwards the favour of the heir, and other conſiderations, produced the right of Ward in the military Tenures, both of England and Scotland. From the ſame original right of the Superior to the land of his vaſſal, flowed the right alſo of intereſting himſelf in the marriage of his vaſſal, that none might be brought into the poſſeſſion of the fief, who was, perhaps, an enemy to, or of a family at enmity with him.

From the ſame principle whence the right of Ward, in caſe of minors, originally flowed, it followed in the caſe of majors, that the Superior had a title to the poſſeſſion, during the interval betwixt the death of one vaſſal and the entry of another. Afterwards the heirs were contented to make a preſent to the Lord for their entries, anciently in redemption, in after times, in renovation of the fief. Hence the incident of *Non-entry* and *Relief.*

According to the ſtrict feudal ſyſtem, the vaſſal could not alienate his fief without the conſent of the Lord. To gain his conſent it was cuſtomary to make him a preſent; on this cuſtom was erected a right of exacting it; and from hence flowed the fine of alienation.

The incident of *Aid* is next conſidered, with the origin of *Land-taxes*, and laſtly the incident of *Eſcheat*. Theſe are the more immediate fruits and effects of Tenures in the feudal ſyſtem, the principles of which, their progreſs, and variations, in proceſs of time, eſpecially the laſt mentioned, viz. *Eſcheat*, are accurately and ingeniouſly traced.

Having ſhewn the progreſs of Tenures, and of their original fruits, the Author concludes this chapter with a ſhort view of the fates of both. As he aſcribes the riſe of them to the ſtrong intereſt of the Superior in the fief, and the connection he had with his vaſſal, ſo it was in the declenſion of this connection that the ruin of the ſyſtem itſelf was involved. By the uniformly varying ſituations of mankind, which rendered this connection more ſlight, that military ſyſtem, which once was ſo univerſal, and ſo ſevere, is now come to be limited in the nature of its Tenures, and more ſo in the perquiſites of them. The people, by their cuſtoms, and by changing many of their military into civil feuds, effected the one; the Judges, by their interpretation, and bending that interpretation to the genius of the times, effected the other.

Chap. III. Contains the hiſtory of the alienation of Land-property, in which are ſeparately conſidered, Voluntary Alienation during the life of him who alienates. Involuntary, or Legal Alienation, and that Alienation which, in conſequence of the Proprietor's will, is to take effect after his death.

For ſome time after the notion of property in land was eſtabliſhed, there were many reſtraints, natural or civil, upon people's power of alienating it. By the concurrence of feudal principle, the reſtraints were ſtill greater. The former were chiefly in favour of the Heir, the latter in favour of the Superior.

The firſt ſtep of alienation of Land-property in Great-Britain, was the power given to a man of alienating what he had himſelf acquired. This paved the way for alienation of what had come by deſcent. At firſt, however, this could be done only in part; afterwards the licence was amply ſtretched among Burgeſſes; and after that gradually gained ground in all Tenures.

One thing which very much facilitated the progreſs of Alienation, was the practice of *Subfeuing*; for in proceſs of time the rear-vaſſals began to think they had a connection only with the perſon of whom they immediately held their poſſeſſions, and none with the original Lord. Hence the complaint in the ſtatute *Quia Emptores Terrarum*, by which it is enacted, in favour of vaſſals, that they may alienate the whole; and in favour of the

the Lords, that lands ſo alienated ſhould be held of them. The King, however, claimed an exception to this ſtatute, with regard to his own vaſſals, but was obliged to give it up ſome reigns after, and the King's vaſſals, by *Knights-ſervice*, were allowed to alienate, on paying a compoſition in Chancery. In the reign of Charles II. Tenures by Knights Service being aboliſhed, theſe compoſitions were aboliſhed with them. By the fall of theſe Tenures, the voluntary alienation of land in England, ſo far as not reſtrained by private deeds, or particular local cuſtoms, was brought to perfection.

In Scotland the conſequence of this ſtatute, owing to different circumſtances, was different. During a long interval, it was generally diſregarded, and the law wavered; till a greater independence of the people, and bent of that people, in favour of alienation, joined to a greater moderation in the government, have at laſt brought to perfection the voluntary alienation of land-property in Scotland.

With regard to the unvoluntary or legal alienation, which ariſes from attachment for debt, Mr. Dalrymple obſerves, that among a rude people, the conception of their obligation to fidelity being weak, the notion of borrowing under a promiſe of paying, is not very natural. Pledges, therefore, given in ſecurity of what was lent, we are to conſider as the firſt obligation to payment. Upon failure of payment, moveables pledged, either remained with the creditor, or were ſold by order of the Judge.

In the law of the books of the Fiefs, immoveables could not be attached for debt, nor for ſeveral reigns after that of William the Conqueror; the limited notions of power over property, added to the intereſt of the Lord againſt bringing in any vaſſal who was a ſtranger to him, prevented this. But as the voluntary alienation of land was firſt freely introduced among trading people in boroughs, ſo the involuntary alienation of it was firſt freely introduced among the ſame people, in the ſame places. This attachment was afterwards extended to all the ſubjects indiſcriminately; the progreſs of it, however, was much ſlower, and more difficult, in relation to the perſon of the heir, for the debt of his anceſtor, than for the debt of the debtor himſelf.

With regard to alienation by will, it would be a long time, it is obſerved, before men could have a notion of it in the feudal law. In time, however, men got a notion of making teſtaments, but, at firſt, only in relation to moveables. This power, once introduced, made way for the ſame power over immoveables; and, the ſame cauſes always producing the ſame effects, the firſt free alienation of land by teſtament, aroſe in the decline of the

feudal law, originally in boroughs. This, again, was quickly transferred from boroughs to the reſt of the country, partly by the interpoſition of Courts, partly by devices of Lawyers, and in the end by public law.

In conſidering the progreſs of theſe three ſpecies of alienation, our Author has remarked its variations in both kingdoms; and upon a review of what he has ſaid obſerves farther, 'That the 'laws of England and Scotland, originally the ſame, have, af-'ter departing long from each other, arrived by different courſes, 'at being nearly the ſame again.'

The remaining chapters contain the hiſtory of *Entails*; of the *Rules* of *Deſcent* or *Succeſſion*; of Conveyances; of Juriſdictions; and of the Conſtitution of Parliament. What has been ſaid of the foregoing, however, renders it unneceſſary for us to ſay more of theſe, than, that the ſubjects of them are treated much in the ſame manner.

It is with pleaſure we can obſerve, upon the whole of this performance, that it well deſerves the attention of the public. The Author has expreſſed his ideas in language that conveys them fully and eaſily to the Reader. The method he has purſued is as good as his ſtile is elegant. In accounting for the riſe, progreſs, and variations of the Laws and Cuſtoms obtaining in the Feudal Syſtem, he is always ingenious, and betrays no want of judgment; and what renders this Eſſay extremely entertaining, as well as uſeful, is the Philoſophy which runs through the whole of it. This has enabled the Writer to pleaſe us, by exciting our attention to the various revolutions of laws, and maxims of law, from general cauſes common to mankind, or common to that part of them governed by one ſyſtem; and alſo to obſerve their different fates, from particular exigencies and ſituations.

Letters from an Armenian in Ireland, to his Friends at Trebiſonde, &c. Tranſlated in the Year 1756. 12mo. 3s. Owen.

THE Writer who would inform, or improve, his countrymen, under the aſſumed character of an Eaſtern Traveller, ſhould be careful to let nothing eſcape him which might betray the impoſture. If his aim be ſatirical, his remarks ſhould be collected from the more ſtriking follies abounding in the country he deſcribes, and from thoſe prevailing abſurdities which commonly uſurp the ſofter name of faſhions. His accounts ſhould be of ſuch a nature, as we may fancy his Aſiatic friend would

would wiſh to know,—ſuch as we ourſelves would expect from a Correſpondent in Aſia.

Whether the country our Author deſcribes was deficient in materials, and had not national follies enough for general ſatire, we are not to determine; but certain it is, he has by no means been cautious in his endeavours to preſerve the fictitious character he has aſſumed. This pretended Armenian eſpouſes party, enters into the minutiæ of the politics of Ireland, explains Poyning's Act, and pays not a little attention to my Lady Mayoreſs, the Chandler's daughter. While theſe, and topics more trifling than theſe, make up the correſpondence, in vain is every period ſtiffned with a *thee* and *thou*; in vain does he ſwear, or pray, like a zealous Muſſulman. He perſonates a native of the Eaſt, juſt as the frigid ****** acts the glowing Othello, or the fiery Bajazet.

But tho' this performance contains little that can be ſuppoſed to excite the curioſity of an inhabitant of Trebiſonde, (and is, conſequently, in that reſpect defective) it contains many things intereſting to a native of Britain. The propereſt means of increaſing our own power, by increaſing that of a country which contributes to our wealth, are here explained; and the manifeſt error, in politics, of a government which endeavours to enrich one part of its dominions by impoveriſhing another, and of chuſing to have but one flouriſhing kingdom when it might be poſſeſſed of two, is here concifely and prettily expoſed.

The Author repreſents the Iriſh, in general, as hoſpitable, good ſubjects, fond of news, given to wine, not ſo thoughtful as the Engliſh, but equally ſincere, yet more complaiſant. Their women handſome, but generally not ſo tall or ſo neat as ours; and vaſtly proud of their deſcent, tho' it may ſometimes happen that they have but ſlight foundation for their vanity. He deſcribes the Houſe of Lords in Ireland, as led entirely by the Biſhops, who are commonly creatures of the Crown, the other members of that aſſembly being bred up in too much indolence and ignorance to have any influence as orators. He next mentions the Commons, who being elected for their own, or the King's life, are ſo much the more liable to bribery, as the emoluments are likely to be of a more laſting continuance. Hence we behold that country involved in all the intricacies of ſtate-chicanery; thoſe who ſhould be its guardians, corrupting, and as much corrupted, in their little ſphere of power, as we can poſſibly be in our larger. It is ſome conſolation to think, that if our calamities be as general as ſome would perſuade us they are, our own vices alone have not brought them on; our fellow-ſubjects of Ireland having contributed their ſhare.

Iliacos intra muros peccatur et extra.

In a Letter concerning the Dublin Univerſity, he informs us, that the Noblemen, and men of fortune, bred there, are excuſed from learning morality, as they can graduate without any ſkill in that ſcience; the Profeſſors making no doubt, but that honeſty neceſſarily ſprings up with nobility.

'When the young men (ſays the Author) have reſided here 'four years, and ſuffered a limited number of examinations, 'they are admitted to the rank of Batchelors or Novices in the 'Arts; and after three years more ſpent in doing little or no-'thing, they are ſtiled either Maſters of the Arts, or Batchelors 'of Law, or more properly Juriſprudence.'—Degrees being conferred in that ſcience without examining the knowlege of thoſe on whom they are conferred. He mentions alſo a Printing-Houſe belonging to this Univerſity, but, at the ſame time, obſerves, that ſince it had been built, no member of the Academy had employed the preſs with any original work either of genius or induſtry.

Take the fourteenth Letter as a ſpecimen of the ſtile and manner of our Author.

AZA to ALI IZRA.

Renowned IZRA,

'WHoſe blood flows, with their virtues, from the younger 'Cyrus and the fair Aſpaſia. Thy wiſdom is as the 'wiſdom of the angels, and thy juſtice as the ſcales of heaven: 'Mahomet the friend, and Ebubekir and Hali, the ſervants of 'God, behold thee with love. Thou aſkeſt me what are the 'reſpective conditions of the Lord and of the Peaſant in this 'remote world: Know, therefore, that they are, in general, 'the conditions of *maſter* and *vaſſal*. About one thouſand 'years ago the lands of theſe weſtern iſles were the property of 'Lords, who had ſlaves annexed to their perſons, and ſlaves to 'their fields, as many ſtates of Germany ſtill have: the pro-'perty of thoſe Lords was accompanied by power; and each 'of theſe kingdoms, at different times, was a ſcene of con-'tending petty Kings, while the policy of the ſupreme King, 'or Vicegerent, was, to ſupport himſelf by ſhifting to the 'ſtronger ſide. Not three hundred years ago, a wiſe Lord of 'England mounted the throne, by aid of the ſtronger party of 'Lords. This man ſaw, that the ſame party might one day 'place another in his ſeat; that their power aroſe from their 'property, which then could not be alienated, and, conſe-'quently, made the heir ſtrong as his anceſtor, ſupporting, at 'the ſame time, family grudges, and the means of vengeance;

there-

'therefore he procured a law, which was flattering to the luxu-
'rious Lords, whom exceſs had made needy, that all men
'ſhould have liberty to alienate their eſtates. This opened a
'way through induſtry to property, and from property to pow-
'er; and, with all the other laws of England, this was brought
'in the ſame reign to Ireland. But circumſtances concurred to
'aid the law in England, which Ireland hath not yet enjoyed;
'Commerce ſoon after began to extend it; ſtreched to Aſtracan,
'croſſed the Caſpian, and reached even to our world: The
'riches of our Eaſt contributed to looſen the ſhackles of the
'Weſt; property, when diffuſed, ſpread a ſenſe of freedom,
'which at length deſtroyed the vaſſalage, and eſtabliſhed a more
'perfect equality in England. Trade would have made as
'complete a change here, if this iſland had been ripe for it,
'more civilized, and equally unconfined in exerting its natural
'advantages: but it was ſtill barbarous, the years of its lordly
'ſlavery were not compleated, and England was jealous of its
'riſing to greatneſs. Trade, which is wealth in effect, may
'eſtabliſh real equality here, but at preſent there is too little to
'ſupport a free conſtitution; there is, indeed, no legal, but
'there is real, vaſſalage: The Lord is a poor tyrant, and
'the peaſant a poor ſlave. Hear me, Ali, the Lord ſeldom
'parcels out his land among the cultivators of it; his ample
'eſtate is divided into a few parts, and hired by a few, who are
'puny Lords, and ſervile imitators of him; each of theſe ſub-
'divides his part, and ſets it to as many more; all theſe have
'a profit from it, proportionable to their degrees of ſubordina-
'tion and quantities of land; at laſt it is broken into ſmall por-
'tions among the poor peaſants, whoſe ſweat is to ſupport
'the idleneſs, perhaps, of twenty ſuperiors, while all the poor
'remains of their labour hardly yield bread for themſelves;
'their food is barely ſufficient to ſupport the day's fatigue, and
'their habitations will not defend from rain the ſtraw on which
'they repoſe; while their unkind Lords are waſting life in
'riot and luxury, regardleſs of the hand that ſupplies them with
'the means. Such is the condition of more than two-third
'parts of the immediate landholders in this kingdom. If eve-
'ry Lord would ſet out his lands only to the cultivator, and al-
'low him a fit reward for his induſtry, the revenue of the Lord
'would be increaſed, and the ſtate of the peaſants made happy.
'In many of the northern parts of this iſland the poverty of
'the land induced induſtry and arts, and the cultivation of theſe
'arts makes the people of eaſier condition, and of larger ſpi-
'rit; it ſupplies them with money, and money enables them
'to purchaſe lands from the Lords, who, by extravagance, be-
'come needy, and looſe the means before the appetite of plea-
'ſure. This has produced an independence there, unrivalled

'by

'by any other part of the iſland. In places where manufactures are not introduced, the tillage or paſture of land is the only ſupport of life, and means of growing rich; but while the peaſants hold their farms in ſuch manner as I have told thee, how can they become rich, or, in truth, be other than ſlaves?'

Thus we find the Author of theſe Letters pointing out (in a ſtile which ſufficiently diſtinguiſhes the European from the Aſiatic) ſeveral defects in the conſtitution of his country, and the conduct of its inhabitants; but he ſeldom ſhews the methods of remedying the evils he complains of.

To the AUTHORS *of the* MONTHLY REVIEW.

THE number of ſurreptitious editions which have been publiſhed in Mr. Voltaire's name, would make us imagine, that both his friends and the bookſellers were alike combined againſt his fame and his property; theſe, by ſtealing his manuſcripts, and thoſe by publiſhing his immature productions. I really compaſſionate this Gentleman, for his want of diſcernment in the choice of friends; and their baſe treatment of him muſt ſurely excite the indignation of every lover of literature. It is the ſame indignation (no doubt) which has ſo often tranſported the Author himſelf, even beyond the bounds of truth, and provoked him ſtrenuouſly to diſown ſome pieces which he afterwards found no difficulty in publicly reclaiming, when the production made its appearance ſomewhat more methodically. Had his friends ſtolen his manuſcripts but once, or twice, we could have forgiven them; but to make a *trade* of it, as they have done!—our aſtoniſhment at their effrontery, even exceeds our pity for the ſuffering Author!

Our ſurprize is ſtill increaſed when we conſider, that Manuſcripts are a commodity in which thieves do not much care to deal. We know not what veneration the thieves abroad may have for *wit*, but, among us, whole rheams of poetry, hiſtory, and even divinity, would lie as ſafe in the public highways, as in the garrets of the Compoſers; unleſs the price paid by the ſhops for waſte-paper, ſhould tempt the ſons of induſtry to carry it off.

But the depriving an Author of his property, or his fame, is not all the miſchief that attends theſe ſurreptitious publications: the world may at laſt be brought to queſtion every thing that appears under his name, and, perhaps, even his genuine pro-

productions may, like the reſt, be treated as impoſture.—Shall I repeat an old ſtory?—A Lady who had heard much of the Marquis de Racan, became very deſirous of a perſonal acquaintance with him, and ſent him an invitation to her houſe. The overture coming to the knowlege of two facetious Gentlemen of his acquaintance, they reſolved to anticipate the favour intended for the Marquis. Accordingly, two hours before the appointed time, one of them waited upon the Lady, and confidently aſſumed the name of Racan. He was received with every demonſtration of reſpect. On her part, the Lady ſhewed the beſt ſide of her underſtanding; talked over all her criticiſms; diſplayed her wit; and was extremely brilliant. On the other hand, ſhe was infinitely charmed with the converſation of the Gentleman: who, however, thought proper to make this firſt viſit but a ſhort one. No ſooner had he taken his leave, than his companion, who had waited for the opportunity, alſo aſſumes the Marquis's name, and introduces himſelf with the utmoſt effrontery. The Lady was a little diſcompoſed at the impoſture of her former viſitant; but the proteſtations, and well counterfeited indignation of the new one, removing her chagrin, ſhe recovered her good humour, rallied away, and was the beſt company in the world. The ſecond falſe Racan had ſcarce left the well-pleaſed Lady, enjoying all the triumphs of her own vivacity, when the Marquis himſelf actually arrived. We ſhall not attempt to deſcribe the confuſion of both parties on this occaſion. In ſhort, the Lady reſolved not to hazard a third deception, and the real Racan was refuſed admittance. The application is obvious.

But, to come to the immediate occaſion of this Epiſtle:—viz. a new publication of no leſs than ſeven octavos, aſcribed to Mr. Voltaire, which, if one may be allowed to judge by the excellence of the performance, is not *ſtolen* into the world, tho' we have no other authority than the bookſeller's word for its being genuine. This publication contains the *Univerſal Hiſtory*, or a Survey of the Manners and Cuſtoms of all Nations, from the Time of Charlemagne; the materials better methodized, more enlarged, and far more accurate, than in the former editions. With this Hiſtory is connected that of the Age of Lewis XIVth; and the whole is continued down to the year 1756. The additions are very numerous, particularly in thoſe parts relative to the manners of the Eaſt; tho' even here the Author and the Public have ſuffered, it ſeems, an irreparable loſs, in that of the manuſcript which contained the Hiſtory of the Oriental Arts and Sciences; the materials of which, we are told, he was furniſhed with by a Greek of Smyrna, named Dadiki, Interpreter to King George the firſt. The Hiſtory of the Age of Lewis XIV. is increaſed in this edition

more

more than one third; particularly in the *anecdotes* concerning that Monarch's reign: and the Hiſtory of the War of 1741, which, in former editions, reached no lower than the battle of Fontenoy, is now continued to the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.

It would be ſuperfluous to add our commendation of thoſe pieces, which, even in their imperfect ſtate, have deſervedly gained the approbation of the public. Voltaire's beauties, as a Writer are many, and obvious; his faults few, and thoſe well concealed under the dazzle of his abilities. It is certain M. Voltaire often colours too ſtrongly. Fond of characters and anecdotes that may ſerve to ſtrike the Reader, he generally raiſes or depreſſes both, as beſt ſuits the point of repreſentation he has in view; and if he does not find his facts and perſonages ſufficiently remarkable, or to his purpoſe, he generally makes them ſo. His maxims are commonly drawn from too ſmall a number of inſtances, to be always true; and tho' as ſhort and comprehenſive as thoſe of Tacitus, they are, by no means, ſo ſtriking. The remarks of Tacitus ſeem to riſe from the narration; thoſe of Voltaire often proceed from the man. The partiality of which he ſo often accuſes the Engliſh Hiſtorians, he himſelf has not been able to avoid. In fine, he ſeems to confirm the remark of one of his countrymen, *That Poets would make the beſt Hiſtorians were they more attached to* Truth.

In that part of the work now before me, which gives the Hiſtory of the late Rebellion in Scotland, Mr. Voltaire flouriſhes away, as follows.

'In this war the kingdom of Great-Britain was upon the point of experiencing ſuch another conteſt as that of the White and Red Roſe. Prince Charles-Edward, grandſon to the unfortunate James the ſecond of England, by the father's ſide; and to the great John Sobieſki of Poland, by the mother's, attempted to aſcend the Britiſh throne, by one of thoſe enterprizes of which we have very few examples, except among the Engliſh alone, or in the fabulous times of antiquity.

On the 12th of Auguſt, 1745, he embarked in a little frigate, of eighteen guns, without apprizing the court of France of his intentions; and provided only with ſeven Officers, one thouſand eight hundred ſwords, twelve hundred muſkets, two thouſand pounds in money, and not a ſingle ſoldier,—for the conqueſt of three kingdoms.

Eſcaping, however, all the dangers of his voyage, he landed on the ſouth-eaſt coaſt of Scotland, and was received with every mark

mark of homage by the inhabitants of Moydart, to whom he made himſelf known. *But what can we do?* ſaid they, falling at his feet, *What can men do unfurniſhed with arms? poor and helpleſs! we live on oat-bread, and cultivate an ungrateful ſoil.*—"*I will ſhare your labours in its cultivation,* replied the Prince, *your proviſions ſhall be mine; I will partake of your poverty, and I will furniſh you with arms.*"

The poor people, melted at his humility, yet encouraged by his reſolution, took arms in his favour. The neighbouring Clans flocked to his aſſiſtance; and a bit of taffety which he had brought with him, was diſplayed as the royal ſtandard. As ſoon as he found himſelf at the head of fifteen hundred men, he directed his march to the city of Perth; took poſſeſſion of it, and cauſed himſelf to be proclaimed Regent of England, France, Scotland, and Ireland, in the name of his father James III. Strengthened by the arrival of ſome Scottiſh Lords, who repaired to his ſtandard, he marched to Edinburgh, and took poſſeſſion of that capital. The Engliſh Privy-Council ſet a price upon his head, and thirty thouſand pounds were offered to whoever ſhould deliver him up dead or alive. He gave no anſwer to this; but gaining a complete victory, with his fifteen hundred mountaineers, over the Engliſh army, at Preſton-Pans; where he made as many priſoners as he had men. Theſe Highlanders are the only people of Europe who preſerve the ancient military dreſs and buckler of the Romans; but with the dreſs, they had alſo the Roman courage, and wanted only their diſcipline to equal them. At this time the Kings of France and Spain remitted him ſome ſupplies of money; they wrote to him; honoured him with the title of brother; and between two and three hundred men of the royal regiment of Scots, with ſome piquets, were ſent to him from France, and landed, after having paſſed through the midſt of the Engliſh fleet.

The young Prince conquered all before him, and proceeded even within thirty leagues of London; he was then at the head of about eight thouſand men. A different General from that who commanded at the battle of Preſton-Pans, advanced from Scotland to oppoſe him: The Prince returned, in the midſt of winter, attacked him at Falkirk, and a ſecond time gained the victory.——

Now was the time to bring about a revolution. Part of the inhabitants of London were ſecretly attached to his intereſts, and ferment and confuſion reigned thro' the capital. The Duke de Richelieu was upon the coaſts of France, ready to bring ten thouſand men to his aſſiſtance; but France being, at that time, unprovided with ſhips of war, the enterprize came to nothing: and

and all the efforts and victories of Charles were rendered fruitleſs. The Duke of Cumberland, at the head of a well diſciplined army, properly provided with cannon, routed thoſe mountaineers, who had nothing to oppoſe to him but their courage. This battle, which was fought at Culloden, not far from Inverneſs, proved deciſive, and the whole Scottiſh army was diſperſed. The Prince, after ſuch a calamity, experienced more afflicting adventures than thoſe of Charles the ſecond, upon his defeat at Worceſter: like him he wandered from place to place, ſometimes with but two friends, companions of his diſtreſs; ſometimes with one only; and ſometimes with not a creature to comfort or attend him; lurking in caverns by day, and making the foreſts his habitation by night; his cloaths reduced to rags, and himſelf deſtitute of ſubſiſtence; ſeeking refuge among deſolate iſlands; and purſued inceſſantly by thoſe who ſought his deſtruction, for the reward which was ſet upon his head.

Having one day walked thirty miles on foot, being preſſed with hunger, and ready to ſink beneath the weight of his diſtreſs, he ventured to enter a houſe, the maſter of which he well knew was attached to the oppoſite party. *Behold*, ſaid he, entering, *the ſon of your King, who comes to aſk a morſel of bread, and a coat to keep off the ſeverity of the ſeaſon! I know thou art my enemy, but I believe thou haſt too much honour to take advantage of my diſtreſs, or abuſe the confidence I repoſe in thee: take and preſerve theſe rags that cover me; thou mayeſt return them to me one day, in the palace of the Kings of England.* The Gentleman, touched at his misfortunes, gave him all the ſuccour his ability, in a country ſo deſolate, would permit, and inviolably preſerved the ſecret.

After long wandering thus upon the coaſts of Lochaber, he finally eſcaped the purſuit of his enemies. A little veſſel wafted him over to Bretagne; from whence he went to Paris, where he remained till the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle; by which the King of France was obliged, for the common good, to forbid him his dominions. This was the completion of the misfortunes of the unfortunate race of the Stuarts. Since that time the retreat of this Prince is concealed from the whole world.'

We ſhall next give our Readers an extract from our Author's conciſe account of the preſent war.

In the midſt of a peace which had its foundation in mutual jealouſy, and in warlike preparations, equally terrible to both parties, an unforeſeen event has changed the whole political ſyſtem of Europe, for the preſent, and time will give it a new appearance hereafter. A trifling quarrel between France and Engla-

England, for certain ſavage lands, dependant on Canada, has inſpired the Sovereigns of Europe with new politics. This quarrel hath ariſen from the negligence of the Miniſters who were employed in concluding the treaty of Utrecht, in 1712 and 1713. By this treaty France had ceded to England, the country of Acadia, in the neighbourhood of Canada, but the limits were not ſpecified, for the Miniſters themſelves were ignorant of them. Such errors are ſeldom committed in private contracts. Confuſion was the neceſſary reſult of this omiſſion. Did Juſtice and Philoſophy enter into the diſputes of mankind, they would ſhew that both ſides diſputed concerning a country to which neither had the leaſt right; but principles like theſe ſeldom influence the affairs of the world. The Engliſh were for having the whole country, even to the frontiers of Canada, and for deſtroying the commerce of France in this part of America. They were far ſuperior in North-America, both in the riches and the number of their Colonies, but ſtill more ſo at ſea, by their Fleets; and having deſtroyed the Marine of France in the year 1741, they had flattered themſelves, that nothing would be able to oppoſe them, either by land or ſea, in that part of the world. They have, however, deceived themſelves in all theſe reſpects, at leaſt in what has yet happened.

They began, in the year 1755, by attacking the French on the ſide of Canada; and, without any declaration of war, made prize of more than three hundred merchant-ſhips, belonging to France: they alſo took ſome veſſels of other nations which were carrying French merchandize.

The conduct of the King of France, on this occaſion, was quite different from that of Lewis XIV. He at firſt contented himſelf with demanding juſtice, and even forbad his ſubjects to make the leaſt oppoſition. Lewis XIV. had affected to talk with ſuperiority in the courts of Europe; Lewis XV. made thoſe courts perceive the ſuperiority which was arrogated by the Engliſh: Lewis XIV. was reproached with ambitiouſly aiming at Univerſal Monarchy; Lewis XV. made the world perceive the real dominion which the Engliſh uſurped, and actually exerciſed over the Seas. And hence, as Europe once deſired the humbling of Lewis XIV. ſo they now wiſhed to lower the pretenſions of the Engliſh.

In the mean time Lewis XV. enjoyed a glorious and juſt revenge. His forces gained a moſt complete victory over the Engliſh in North-America; and a formidable fleet iſſued from his ports, with deſign to invade the electoral dominions of the King of England.

This

This invaſion of Germany, again threatned Europe with new commotions; the firſt ſparks of which had been kindled in North-America. This it was that gave riſe to a change in the whole political ſyſtem of Europe. The King of England intended to oppoſe to the French, in Germany, with an army of Ruſſians, which the Engliſh were to keep in pay. The Empreſs of Ruſſia was at this time in alliance with the Emperor, and the Empreſs Queen of Hungary. The King of Pruſſia had reaſon to fear leſt the Ruſſians, the Imperialiſts, and Hanoverians, ſhould, with united forces, oppreſs him. Tho' he had an hundred and fifty thouſand men in arms, he gladly came into an alliance with the King of England, to hinder, on the one hand, the Ruſſians from entering Germany, and on the other, to prevent the French from doing the like on the oppoſite ſide. This *fine* ſtroke in politics had effects which were very diſagreeable to the King of Pruſſia, and which were unexpected by all; it reconciled the houſes of Auſtria and Bourbon! What ſo many treaties, ſo many marriages, could never bring to paſs,—what none could hope for after the acceſſion of Charles V. to the Empire, was, at the end of two hundred years, brought about, without any trouble, by the umbrage France had taken at a Prince of the Empire.

But treaties were not all the means the King of France made uſe of toward obtaining revenge for the depredations of the Engliſh. He was ſupplied with all the money he had occaſion for, by one of thoſe reſources which are to be found only in kingdoms ſo opulent as that of France. Twenty new places of Farmers-General, and ſome borrowed money, ſufficed to ſupport the beginning of the war; while Great-Britain was exhauſted with exorbitant taxes.

The coaſts of England were menaced with a pretended invaſion. Theſe were not the times of Queen Elizabeth, who, with the powers of England alone, having Scotland to fear, and ſcarce able to reſtrain Ireland, bravely withſtood the efforts of Philip the ſecond. The King of England, George the ſecond, thought it neceſſary to call over the Hanoverians and Heſſians to defend the country. The Engliſh, who had looked for no ſuch incident, murmured to ſee themſelves over-run with ſtrangers. The diſpleaſure of ſome was changed into fright, and all trembled for their liberty.

The reſt of the chapter is taken up in an account of the ſiege of Port Mahon; where we ſee the French performing prodigies of valour, ſcaling thoſe walls, in the face of the enemy, which others would find the utmoſt danger in deſcending, even in cool blood. But Frenchmen can do, or ſay, any thing.

In

In the anecdotes of Lewis XIV. the Author preſents his Reader with ſome pieces written by that Monarch. The following are part of the inſtructions which he delivered to his grandſon, Philip V. upon his departure for Spain. They were penned in haſte (as we are told) and with a negligence which diſcovers the genius and diſpoſition of a Writer much better than ſtudied compoſitions would have done. In theſe we behold both the Father and the King.

"Love the Spaniards, and all other ſubjects of your crown, "and ſervants of your perſon. Prefer not thoſe who flatter you "moſt; eſteem ſuch as hazard your diſpleaſure by purſuing "what is right: ſuch are your friends in reality.

"Endeavour to be yourſelf the happineſs of your ſubjects, "and, for this reaſon, make war only when you are forced to "it; after having well conſidered and weighed with your coun-"cil the motives which render it neceſſary.

"Endeavour to put your finances into good order. Let the "Indies and your fleets be your chief concern. Keep commerce "in your thoughts. Still maintain the ſtricteſt union with "France: what can be more advantageous to the intereſt of "both kingdoms than an union which nothing will be able "to reſiſt? *

"If you are conſtrained to make war, command your armies "in perſon.

"Endeavour to reinſtate your troops in all quarters, but be-"gin with thoſe of Flanders.

"Never leave buſineſs for pleaſure; but portion out ſet times "for amuſement as well as labour.

"There are few pleaſures more innocent than hunting, or "that of an agreeable country-houſe: provided neither be too "expenſive.

"Give great attention to thoſe who addreſs you upon buſi-"neſs, and be very ſlow in deciding at the beginning.

"When you have received proper information, be mindful "that it is you yourſelf who are to decide; however, though "you are never ſo well experienced, always hear the arguments "and advice of your council before you determine.

"Do all that lies in your power to find out thoſe of the "greateſt merit, that you may be well-ſerved in all exigencies.

* It ſeems, however, he was deceived in this particular.

" Endeavour to have your Governors and Viceroys always " natives of Spain.

" Uſe good manners to all the world. Never ſay any thing " diſpleaſing to any perſon whatſoever; yet pay peculiar diſ- " tinctions to rank and merit.

" Teſtify your gratitude to the late King, and to all thoſe " who adviſed the making you his ſucceſſor.

" Repoſe great confidence in Cardinal Porto-Carero, and " let him ſee the pleaſure his paſt conduct has afforded you.

" I think ſomething conſiderable ſhould be done for the Am- " baſſador who firſt demanded you, and paid his homage as a " ſubject.

" Forget not Bedmar: he has merit, and is capable of doing " you ſervice.

" Place entire confidence in the Duke de Harcourt; he has " capacity, and he has honeſty; all his advice will be intended " for your good.

" Keep all the French within bounds.

" Uſe all your domeſtics well, but never indulge them in too " many familiarities, nor ever depend too much upon them. " As long as they behave prudently, employ them, but for the " moſt trifling fault diſcharge them; and never take their part " againſt the Spaniards.

" Keep no correſpondence with the Queen-Dowager, but " ſuch as cannot be diſpenſed with. Oblige her to leave Ma- " drid, but do not permit her to go out of Spain. Wherever " ſhe reſides, obſerve her conduct, and endeavour to prevent " her interfering in buſineſs; and ſuch as maintain a cloſe cor- " reſpondence with her, are to be ſuſpected.

" Ever love your relations. Still remember the pain which " they felt at your departure. Preſerve a correſpondence with " them in trifles, as well as in things of more importance. Aſk " from us whatever you think proper, with which you cannot " be ſupplied in the country to which you go. We ſhall uſe the " ſame liberties with you.

" Never forget that you are a Frenchman, and be ever on " your guard againſt contingencies. When you have an aſſu- " rance of the ſucceſſion of Spain for your children, viſit " your kingdoms, go to Naples, to Sicily, to Milan, and to " Flanders; thus you will have an opportunity of ſeeing us:

" you

"you may visit in the mean-time Catalonia, Arragon, and other "parts of Spain. See what is to be done with respect to Ceuta.

"Throw some money among the populace upon your arrival "in Spain, particularly on your entry into Madrid.

"Do not appear in the least disgusted at the extraordinary "figures you will find among your subjects. Offer not to ridi-"cule them, though they seem ever so absurd. Every country "has its peculiar fashions; you will soon be familiarized to "what at first appears monstrous.

"Avoid, as much as possible, the doing those a favour who "endeavour to obtain it by a bribe. On proper occasions dis-"pense your favours liberally, but receive no presents from "others, or at least only trifles. If at any time you cannot "well avoid the acceptance, after a few days have intervened, "make more than an equivalent return.

"Reserve a particular cabinet for such things as you would "keep secret from others; of which yourself must carry the key.

"I shall conclude with the most important part of my ad-"vice. Suffer yourself not to be governed. Assume the King; "never keep a favourite, or a Prime Minister. Listen to, con-"sult with, your Privy Council; but let none but yourself de-"termine. God, who has made you a King, will also give "you such lights as are requisite for government, while your "intentions preserve their integrity."

Mr. Voltaire has made several additions to his Memoirs of the French Writers; for instance, those of the great Montesquieu appeared not in the former editions.

Charles Montesquieu, President of the Parliament of Bourdeaux, born in 1689, published, at the age of thirty-two, his *Persian Letters*, a work of humour, abounding with strokes which testify a genius above the performance. It is written in imitation of the *Siamese Letters* of Du Freny, and of the *Turkish Spy*; but it is an imitation which shews what the originals should have been. The success their works met with was, for the most part, owing to the foreign air of their performances; the success of the *Persian Letters* arose from the delicacy of their satire. That satire which in the mouth of an Asiatic is poignant, would lose all its force when coming from an European. The genius which appeared in this performance, opened to Mr. Montesquieu, the gates of the French academy, even though it had been reflected upon by him. Yet at the same time, the liberty which he took in speaking of government, and the abuses of religion, induced Cardinal de Fleury to exclude him from the intended honour.

However, the Author took very politic meaſures for reconciling this Miniſter to his intereſts. He publiſhed a new edition of this work; in which he retrenched, or ſoftened, all that could be cenſured by that great man, either as Cardinal or Miniſter. The Author carried the book, thus altered, to the Cardinal; who, though he ſeldom read, looked over part of the performance. The air of confidence which appeared in the Author upon preſenting it, together with the inſtances of ſome perſons of credit in his favour, reconciled the Cardinal; and Monteſquieu was admitted into the academy.

After this he publiſhed his treatiſe on the grandeur and decline of the Romans, a ſubject which, though trite, he rendered new, by fine reflection, and exquiſite colouring; it may be looked upon as a political hiſtory of the Roman empire. His laſt publication was that of, *The Spirit of Laws.*

N. B. Our Readers will find a much fuller account of Baron Monteſquieu, and his writings, in the Review for February, 1756; in which is given a tranſlation of M. Maupertuis's Eloge on this great Man.

*** The ſeven volumes of Voltaire's works, which are the ſubject of the preceding article, may be had of Mr. Vaillant in the Strand.

Practical Reflections on the Uſes and Abuſes of Bath Waters, made from actual experiments and Obſervations. *By* William Baylies, *M. D.* 8vo. 4 s. Millar.

DR. Baylies adopts the chymical analyſis of the Bath-waters by Dr. Lucas, who is ſaid to have made it appear, that 'the long-received notions of their being ſulphureous, nitrous, 'ſaponaceous, and alkaline, are entirely groundleſs:' and that, on the contrary, 'they are enriched with a mild, volatile, vi-'triolic, acid ſpirit, united with a ſubtle, penetrating, neutral 'ſalt, and a mixture of ſea-ſalt, iron, and earth.' From hence our Author demands whether (as the Bath-waters are a compound medicine, the ſeveral ingredients of which may, in ſome conſtitutions, reſiſt the efficacy of each other, and, in different patients, often produce different effects, ſo as to render ſome coſtive, and purge others) 'it is not the buſineſs of the phyſician 'to increaſe or leſſen each of the ingredients which is ſeparable 'from the waters, as the caſe may require? and not to order 'a crowd of other medicines to be taken with the waters, or

'ſuch

'ſuch a ſmall quantity of them [the waters] as can anſwer no man-'ner of good purpoſe?' For inſtance, in ſuch caſes as require more of the fixed ſaline parts than is contained in ſuch a quantity of water as a ſick ſtomach will bear; 'it cannot be irrational to 'have theſe ſalts ſeparated from the waters, and a ſolution of them 'in a ſmall quantity of the ſame waters, occaſionally added to each 'particular doſe at the fountain-head; as by that means they, 'in particular caſes, may not only be made agreeable to the 'ſtomachs of the ſick, but every good be obtained, which the 'ſeparate ingredients of the waters, or the waters themſelves, 'in their *natural ſtate*, could in ſuch caſes produce,'

From hence our Author proceeds to conſider, ſeparately, the qualities and uſes of the reſpective ingredients aſſigned to the compoſition of Bath-waters. And firſt he obſerves, that as every ſubacid ſolution of iron is of a ſtyptic or aſtringent nature, and as the Bath-waters contain a ſolution of iron in a volatile vitriolic acid, it muſt conſequently be prejudicial in coughs, inflammations, and hectic conſtitutions; but this acid being volatile, it will entirely exhale, by the waters being kept a few hours after they are taken from the ſpring, or if they are made warmer than they naturally are, by the aſſiſtance of fire: by which means the waters may be rendered a good medicine in thoſe very complaints in which they before would have been hurtful, and may be as uſeful at a diſtance, as at the fountain-head.

The Doctor next endeavours to prove, that various ſalts, however they may agree in their ſenſible qualities, frequently differ in their medicinal effects. Nor is he ſingular in this ſentiment. Writers, with whom our Author does not claim any acquaintance, were long ago of the ſame opinion. The deduction from this hypotheſis is, that the neutral ſalts of the Bath-waters being poſſeſſed of peculiar properties, that cannot be anſwered by the ſubſtitution of any other neutral ſalt, in caſes where a greater quantity of this ſalt than the waters naturally contain, is indicated, the Bath-ſalt, and no other, ought to be employed. But would it not have been proper to have informed us, what were the peculiarities of the Bath-ſalt? Plauſible as his reaſonings, on this point, may appear upon paper, it is apprehended that ſome inconveniences will attend their being carried into practice; particularly if, as Dr. Lucas aſſerts, a pint of Bath-water does not contain quite four grains * of this neutral ſalt. If this be the caſe, the trouble and coſt of procuring a ſufficient quantity to ſupply the many calls that may happen for it, will render it ſo expenſive as greatly to obſtruct its general uſe. We may add, that till the particular ef-

* See Review, Vol. XIV. p. 207.

fects of this ſalt, and the manner in which it differs from other neutral ſalts, hitherto ſuppoſed to be analogous to it, are aſcertained by experience, it may not unreaſonably be concluded, that our Author's mere conjectures will ſcarce be a ſufficient temptation to the incurring this expence.—It is an old obſervation, that chemiſts have ſeldom been remarkable for their œconomy.

The qualities and effects of ſea-ſalt, the abſorbent earth, Dr. Lucas's oily principle, and the uſe of pure water in the cure of diſeaſes, as well as its particular efficacy when impregnated with the Bath-ingredients, employ the four ſucceeding chapters; which at leaſt are ſo far uſeful, as they ſerve to enlarge the volume; a point that ſeems to have been no leſs regarded by the Printer of this work, than by its Author.

We are here arrived at the eighth diviſion of this performance, concerning 'the alteration which the nature and qualities of the 'ſeveral ingredients in Bath-water are liable to, by their union 'together.' This we ſhall paſs over, as we are not altogether inclined, with our Author, to think, that the generality of phyſicians are unacquainted with the effects produced by the combination of different bodies; and, more eſpecially, as he has offered nothing but what has been often ſaid upon the ſame ſubject. But the moſt notable part of this chapter, is a flaming remonſtrance againſt the conduct of the managers and phyſicians of the Bath-Infirmary. The principal matters of complaint are, 1ſt. That there ſhould, at this time, be wanting, a collection of hiſtorical facts, 'wherein the Bath-water has been depended upon for the 'cure of diſtempers, from which ſomething certain might be 'learned of their virtues and effects:' this want our Author threatens to ſupply himſelf, as ſoon as he is furniſhed with ſufficient materials. 2dly, That the gates of the hoſpital are not opened to all the ſeveral gentlemen of the faculty, reſident at Bath, who are diſpoſed to attend the ſame. But here it may poſſibly be objected, that though in *politics*, a multitude of counſellors is ſaid to produce ſafety, yet in *phyſic*, the Many have been found to occaſion confuſion. How melancholy would be the caſe of the unhappy patients in our numerous hoſpitals in London, if they were obliged to ſubmit to the caprice of every unexperienced dogmatiſt, dignified with a diploma.

Having thus traced the ſeveral principles in the compoſition of the Bath-waters, the Doctor conſiders, in Chap. IX. their general qualities: concerning which he obſerves, 'that 'whatever alterations our bodies may undergo from a rarefaction, 'dilution, and attenuation of the fluids, even in the minuteſt 'veſſels, together with an increaſe of the elaſticity of their conſtituent fibres, are the effects which the Bath-waters will always produce.'

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The ſtructure of the human body is the ſubject of Chap. X. but as our Author has permitted the heart, &c. to retain the quiet poſſeſſion of the places aſſigned to them at leaſt a thouſand years ago, and has attempted no innovation in the animal œconomy, further notice of what is offered on this ſubject is unneceſſary. In the ſame ſhort manner, and for the ſame reaſon, i. e. becauſe it contains nothing but what every regular practitioner is ſuppoſed to know, we ſhall diſmiſs Chap. XI. concerning the nature and effects of ſolvents in general.

In Chap. XII. the different degrees of heat in the waters of Bath, and the power which ſolvents have in proportion to their heat are examined. It is here remarked, that 'as moſt of our 'chronical diſorders are produced by obſtructions, in ſome of 'the principal parts of the body, the removal of which obſtructions depends on a reſtitution of fluidity to the obſtructing matter, it is evident, that this is obtainable from the uſe only of 'ſome proper ſolvent; and that the power of ſuch ſolvent is 'variable according to the particular degree of heat with which 'it is employed.—Whence it muſt follow, that the choice of the 'baths, in Bath, is a matter of the utmoſt conſequence to the 'ſick, ſince each of them is attended with a different degree of 'heat, different from either of the other; and ſince it is certain, that the conſtitutions of different perſons, and even of 'the ſame individual, at different times, will be differently affected with the ſame degree of heat, ſo that the hot-bath may 'be very dangerous and prejudicial, when the croſs-bath would 'be extremely beneficial; and *vice verſa*.—All this is very true, but where is the diſcovery?

The Doctor, in Chap. XIII. takes into conſideration the fever which the waters are ſometimes apt to excite. Sydenham and Boerhaave tell us, that a fever is an effort of nature, to expel ſomething from the body that is injurious to the conſtitution,—'When therefore Bath-waters quicken the pulſe, and excite a 'preternatural heat, with other ſymptoms of a fever, can any 'one' [aſks Dr. Bailies] 'be alarmed at the event? or be ſo abſurd (as the practice at Bath has been) as to counteract nature, 'and the ſalutary effects of the water on the body, by immediately ordering the patients to deſiſt from their uſe, of preſcribing nitrous and other cooling draughts, with phlebotomy, 'and the like?'

It is agreed, that ſo ſaid Sydenham and Boerhaave, and likewiſe many others, their predeceſſors, in the art of healing; yet let not this learned gentleman be offended at a few interrogatories on the conſequences he deduces from their premiſes. Notwithſtanding they conſidered a fever as a kind endeavour of nature,

ture, did not both Sydenham and Boerhaave recommend and practice bleeding, and refrigerants, in the acceſs of an inflammatory fever? May there not be ſome difference between a fever ſpontaneouſly raiſed by nature, and one occaſioned by accident or intemperance? Are not the febrile ſymptoms conſequent upon drinking the Bath-waters generally of the inflammatory kind? Dame Nature, it muſt be confeſſed, is a good ſort of a gentlewoman, but now and then ſhe is apt to put herſelf into ſuch heats, as, it is to be feared, would require more than all our Author's ſagacity to allay.

The external uſe of theſe waters is the laſt object of this Author's attention; the principal points he ſeems to have here in view, are, to offer ſome ſtrictures on a treatiſe of Dr. Oliver's *, and to revive the very commendable old practice of vapour-bathing; though with reſpect to the latter, Dr. Baylies does not appear to be apprized of its antiquity.

In imitation of ſome other great men, the Doctor has been at the trouble of recapitulating his precepts, and throwing them into an aphoriſtical form. This taſk furniſhes a fifteenth chapter, which may, perhaps, be conſidered as a mere expletive; nevertheleſs, it muſt be allowed uſeful to the purpoſe of a Writer, who ſeems to have been ambitious of making his appearance before the Public, in a ſizeable volume.

Such, however, as may not be readily inclined to approve all our Author's medical ſentiments, will, we apprehend, be obliged, on peruſal of this work, to commend him for his *gratitude*. Dr. Lucas, than whom few Writers are more frugal of applauſe, eſpecially to his brethren of the faculty, having been pleaſed to diſtinguiſh Dr. Baylies with ſpecial marks of his favour, the compliment is here moſt liberally returned. Nor is it only on account of his chemical diſcoveries that the former is in ſuch high eſtimation with the latter. 'I with pleaſure,' ſays Dr. Baylies, 'confeſs, (*and therein I am kept in countenance by my friend* Dr. Lucas) that I received the firſt rudiments of phyſic 'in the *ſhop* of an *apothecary*, in which I had an opportunity not 'only of being acquainted with the variety of articles in the '*materia medica*, of ſeeing what would, and what would not, 'unite, and by what means their union was to be perfected; 'but likewiſe of obſerving their effects on different conſtitutions 'in different diſeaſes, under the directions of many able practi 'tioners; during which I had the benefit of *reading* thoſe lec 'tures conſiderately, which were compiled by the learned Boer 'haave, and others, for the inſtruction of their pupils, while

* Review, Vol. V. p. 361, ſeq.

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'the ſtudents in our univerſities, however well they are there 'inſtructed in theoretic reaſonings, have little or no opportu-'nity of ſeeing the maxims they receive in their lectures con-'firmed to them by practice.'—But whatever may be the defects of an academical education, ſurely other attainments beſides unaſſiſted reading, even though joined to the utmoſt adroitneſs in the exerciſe of the peſtle and ſpatula, are neceſſary to complete the phyſician; and, more eſpecially, to accompliſh a dictator in the art of healing. Were it not that the authority of ſo very antient a Writer might be diſregarded by a gentleman who ſeems to imagine that the whole of phyſical knowlege may be acquired by a peruſal of the moderns only, the *ars longa* of Hippocrates, (who ſtands at leaſt as good a chance as our Author of being reſpectably remembered in the records of medicine) might be quoted on this occaſion.

This conciſe and facile way of travelling to Doctorſhip has been of late propagated with no ſmall induſtry. Indeed, almoſt every age has produced its *Theſſalus* †. It is not very long ſince the public papers ‡ informed us, that a phyſician of eminence (ſo the advertiſer ſcruples not to ſtile himſelf) 'continued to inſtruct any perſons in the theory and practice of phyſic, ſo as to be able to conſult with the beſt phyſicians in England, within ſix months; and at the expiration of that time, he aſſures them of a *diploma*. But one thing, equally neceſſary with the diploma, this Doctor-maker ſeems to have forgot; viz. to aſcertain a ſufficient number of patients to his pupils: only do this, Friend, and we venture to prophecy, thou wilt not want employment. What a bleſſed crop of *phyſicians* may we not expect!

† Such as do not chuſe to be at the trouble of conſulting the antients themſelves, will not take it amiſs to be informed, that *Theſſalus* practiſed phyſic at Rome in the time of Nero. He arrogated all medical knowlege to himſelf, and treated with the utmoſt indecency, both his predeceſſors and his cotemporaries. Pliny ſpeaks of him as *delentem cuncta majorum placita, et rabie quadam in omnis ævi medicos peroranten*. He alſo undertook to teach any body phyſic in ſix months.

‡ Public Advertiſer, July 11, 1757.

An Analyſis of Dr. Rutty's Methodical Synopſis of Mineral Waters. Addreſſed, by way of Appeal, *to the Royal College of Phyſicians of London. By* C. Lucas, M. D. 8vo. 2s. Millar.

IT has, not infrequently, happened, that the officious Meddler between two doughty combatants, has drawn upon himſelf the reſentment of both: ſo poſſibly it might be with us ſhould we attempt to interpoſe in this hydrological* contention; and tho', perhaps, we need not have much to fear from the pacific principles of Dr. Rutty, there may be reaſon to apprehend more than a little from the ſanguine diſpoſition of his Analyſer. Nay, ſhould even the truly reſpectable body *appealed to*, decline the honour thus conferred on them, their reaſons for ſo doing may be readily conjectured, without the ſpirit of divination. Wherefore, as the moſt prudential to ourſelves, the leaſt irkſome to our Readers, and the juſteſt to our Author, we ſhall purſue the ſame method with this performance *of only nine days creation*, that appeared to us moſt eligible with reſpect to the work† *of one and twenty years labour* hereby intended to be cenſured.—We ſhall mention what Dr. Lucas undertakes, and leave him to ſpeak for himſelf.

In our account of Dr. Rutty's work a ſhort intimation was given of a few particulars in which he differed from Dr. Lucas: but a vindication of his own chemical principles is not ſo much our Author's intention, as to ſhew, 1ſt, That Dr. Rutty's 'previous *deſcriptions and inveſtigations of the characteriſtics of the impregnating Minerals*, are either unjuſt or defective almoſt univerſally.' 2. That 'he is never able, with any appearance of propriety, to reduce Waters to genera.' 3. That 'he never makes a fair, a complete, or concluſive analyſis of any Water, never having ſeen one tenth of the Waters he pretends to analyſe, in the natural ſtate.' 4. That 'though, as he propoſes, he may *deſcribe*, he can never *aſcertain* the virtues, uſes, or abuſes of any conſiderable medicated Water, for want of means and opportunity of making regular obſervations on the ſpot.' 5. That '*his method* is ſo far from being *entirely new*, that there is nothing new in it, but the groſs errors and inconſiſtencies of the Author.' 6. That '*his tables* inſtead of

* As this word, ſo far as we remember, has not yet been received into any of our Dictionaries, and as Dr. Lucas is extremely jealous of his literary property, it may be neceſſary to acknowlege, that we borrowed it from him.

† Vid. Supra, p. 97, ſeq.

'*throwing*

'*throwing light upon the*, to him obscure and *intricate subject*, 'leave it still in shade and darkness.' 'And 7. and lastly, That 'so far is he from giving *abstracts of the principal Authors who* '*have treated of Mineral Waters*, and from *collecting and properly digesting the accounts* of such *dispersed in the Acts of most of* '*the learned Societies in Europe*, that he but partially mentions 'the Authors, and those of the inferior class, among which he 'is most likely to shine; not daring to recite those to whom he 'stands most indebted‡; and but cursorily, superficially glances' 'at abstracts from learned Societies and Academies.'

Mortifying imputations these; but are they proved? Not all of them; tho' it may be admitted, that our Author has now and then caught his alleged adversary tripping; nevertheless, in many instances, it is imagined, his criticisms will be deemed by the more dispassionate Reflector, too precipitate; and it may also be suspected, that resentment had the greatest share in dictating them.——On a former occasion, we took notice of Dr. Lucas's want of temper*, when engaged in any controversy;—in this performance he may be said to have almost disclaimed even the appearance of decency: but in excuse for the rudeness of his censure, he pleads *particular indignities* offered to himself. What these indignities are, we are not positively informed; if of a private nature, the public ought not to have been troubled with them; if they imply only a difference in matters of science, surely personally invectives ought to have been more sparingly employed. Indeed, if we may be allowed to judge by the whole tenor of this production, Dr. Rutty seems to have incurred this coarse treatment from his not having deigned to take *any* notice of Dr. Lucas's Writings, and by having mentioned him only as *Charles Lucas* APOTHECARY: Whether these will be thought provocations sufficient to justify the grossest illiberalities that we remember to have seen in print, (especially from the pen of one who, no doubt, would not wish to be thought of otherwise than as a Gentleman and a Scholar) let others determine.

‡ Our Author here evidently alludes to his own Essay on Waters; an authority to which he appeals again and again, in almost every page of his pamphlet.

* See Review, vol. XIV. page 208.

The

The Conteſt in America, between Great-Britain and France, with its Conſequences and Importance; giving an Account of the Views and Deſigns of the French, with the Intereſts of Great-Britain, and the Situation of the Britiſh and French Colonies, in all Parts of America: In which a proper Barrier between the two Nations in North-America is pointed out, with a Method to proſecute the War, ſo as to obtain that neceſſary Security for our Colonies. By an Impartial Hand. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Millar.

AN inequality of ſtile, a want of method, and a diſguſting iteration of the ſame obſervations, manifeſtly betray too much haſte in the preſent publication. The Author who engages in the tranſitory politics of the day, may be compared to a Sportſman ſhooting flying;—while he is taking aim, the object in view often gains too great a diſtance, and eſcapes the meditated blow. Such Writers are generally obliged to ſacrifice ornament to opportunity; and, in order to catch the preſent hour, give up all hopes with regard to poſterity.

The performance now in review may be divided, firſt, into a detail of the cauſes which gave riſe to the preſent conteſt in America; ſecondly, The conduct of the contending parties; and thirdly, The moſt proper method of bringing this conteſt to a happy concluſion. This ſeems the natural order, and ſuch as our Author ought to have obſerved. But, as we have already hinted, this is a point he has very little attended to.

A total inattention in the people of Great-Britain to, and a thorough perſuaſion in the French, of, the importance of North-America, are the cauſes to which the Author attributes the conteſts which at preſent diſturb the tranquility of Europe. This perſuaſion influenced the French to incroach upon our American territories; and we ſupinely neglected to oppoſe their deſigns; which manifeſtly were to check the farther growth of the Britiſh colonies, by ſurrounding and contracting them on all ſides: and thus to ſecure all the interior part of the Continent to themſelves, by which means the Britiſh ſettlements would be prevented from extending backwards into the country. The bad conſequences of this, to Britain, are viewed in the following light. Upon calculation, the inhabitants of the Britiſh colonies are found to increaſe to double their former number, at the expiration of every thirty years. If prevented from extending themſelves, the countries already inhabited muſt, of courſe, grow more populous, and the price of lands will increaſe in proportion. But their ſtaple commodities, tobacco and ſugar, muſt be produced from lands which the planters may have almoſt

for nothing, otherwiſe the labour will not be repaid by the profits of the produce. And this is the caſe in all the more populous parts of our colonies at preſent. The ground formerly allotted for the raiſing tobacco, is now employed in providing neceſſaries for the inhabitants. From hence it appears, that thoſe commodities with which we are now ſupplied by our colonies, will, when thoſe colonies are grown too populous, be ſupplied cheaper by foreign markets; to which the Merchant, who only conſults his profit, will naturally have recourſe: and all the money thus laid out among ſtrangers, will be ſo much loſt to the ſubjects of Great-Britain.

Another point the French have had in view, was to get poſſeſſion of Nova Scotia, and annex that extenſive province to Cape Breton. Poſſeſſed of this country, they muſt be maſters of all the coaſts repreſented by their Hiſtorian Charlevoix, as more valuable than mines of gold: it muſt give them a naval power, in time ſuperior to that of Britain, and would lead them into all our colonies on the coaſt of that continent.

Their next deſign was, to ſecure thoſe extenſive territories to which they lay claim, by proper fortifications; and accordingly they have enſured them all, by means of Fort du Queſne and Niagara, which link together their two diſtant colonies of Canada and Louiſiana; through which there is a water-carriage for upwards of three thouſand miles. They wanted alſo a *convenient* port on the ſea-coaſt; for which purpoſe they long ſince pitched upon New-York: and from the year 1689, to the preſent time, they have never loſt ſight of this deſirable object. With this view they have built ſeveral forts even within our territories, and have been attacking that city, by gradual approaches, for many years paſt.

While the French have been thus employed in the *Northern* parts of the Continent, in the more *Southern* alſo they have not been idle. They have hitherto been confined chiefly to the mouth of the Miſſiſſippi, in a bad ſoil, and an unhealthy air; but higher up the river, the country is free from both theſe inconveniencies: and here have they for ſome years paſt, been endeavouring to eſtabliſh themſelves. 'The great deſign they 'have in this, at preſent, is the culture of tobacco: this is the 'only branch of trade now in which they do not vie with Bri-'tain, if not out ſtrip it. For this reaſon they have given great 'bounties upon this commodity from the Miſſiſſippi, which the 'ſoil and climate, in the interior parts of the country, is every 'way fit for; while about the mouth of the river it only produces 'rice and indigo. When they are well ſettled here, then, where 'they have ſuch a vaſt extent, and choice of freſh lands for this

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'commodity, they muſt outſtrip our tobacco plantations, that 'are worn out with culture, in the ſame manner, and for the 'ſame reaſons, that their ſugar-iſlands have ſo much out-'done ours.' While theſe deſigns were kept in view, and ſteadily influenced the conduct of the French, the Engliſh, divided among themſelves, were ſeparately bent on private emolument, and followed ſuch ſchemes as ſelf-intereſt alone directed. Our public meaſures were influenced by the opinions of Merchants, whoſe chief aims were the profits of trade; or of Planters, who each regarded only the enriching his own family. Upon the firſt encroachment of the French, by endeavouring to ſettle at Crown-Point, in 1726, they were obliged, by the colony of Maſſachuet'ſ-Bay, to retire. From that time all thoughts of the French ſeem to have been laid aſide, and all endeavours of the Britiſh colonies ſeemed only calculated to diſtreſs each other. For ſoon after this, came on the diſpute between Maſſachuſet'ſ-Bay and New-Hampſhire, about their bounds; which ſeems to have engroſſed the whole attention of theſe colonies; ſo that the French again took poſſeſſion of Crown-Point, without any other oppoſition than ſome proteſts, particularly of the Five Indian Nations, againſt the encroachers. Lake Champlain, and all the territories thereabout, were, in the iſſue of the aforementioned conteſt, adjudged to New-Hampſhire; and thus the defence and ſecurity of thoſe important places devolved entirely upon New-York:—a colony too weak even for its own defence, but rendered more ſo by the diviſion of their Government, (the whole Province of New-Jerſey being taken from it) and by the long and expenſive law-ſuit which had ſubſiſted between thoſe colonies, previous to that ſeparation. The Merchants in England likewiſe contributed to eſtabliſh the French at Crown-Point, by oppoſing the important ſettlement at Oſwego, from intereſted motives, as a company of them had engroſſed the whole trade of ſupplying the colony, as was pretended, with goods for the Indian trade; which goods they ſold wholeſale to the French, inſtead of retailing them to the Engliſh, or the Indians. The latter frequently remonſtrated againſt this clandeſtine traffic, as highly prejudicial both to our intereſt and theirs: and not concealing their reſentment, they flatly affirmed, that the French built Forts with Engliſh materials, ſupplied by our Merchants.

To rectify our former ill conduct, and to acquire a ſolid and laſting peace, the Author propoſes an union of our colonies; but as a general union might be impracticable, he gives the plan of a triple one. Such of our colonies as lie northward, namely, Nova Scotia, New-England, New-York, and New-Jerſey, ſhould compoſe the northern Union; Pennſylvania, Maryland,

Maryland, and Virginia, the middle; and both the Carolinas, with Georgia, the ſouthern. All theſe have a mutual intereſt, a connection, and dependance upon each other; and from a compariſon of their ſituation with that of the French, it will be found, that if properly conducted, they might, when thus united, make head againſt the enemy at preſent, and oppoſe their deſigns for the future.

As the French have a chain of Forts, from which they can annoy us in all quarters, while they are ſecure themſelves, the Author takes many opportunities of exhorting the Coloniſts to the demolition of thoſe forts, *viz. Crown-Point*, *Fort du Queſne*, and *Niagara*, but eſpecially the two latter, which he would have immediately attacked with our united force. The deſtroying Crown-Point may prevent the preſent inſults of the French; but the deſtruction of Du Queſne, and Niagara, will ſap the very foundations of their uſurped power, and give us peace upon our own terms.

To remedy all the evils which French Encroachment, or Britiſh Indolence, may hereafter produce, the Author points out as a *Barrier* between them, the river St. Lawrence, from its mouth to its ſource, with the great lakes that empty themſelves into it. 'Theſe,' ſays he, 'are the only juſt and equitable 'bounds that we ought to confine the French to, for our own 'ſafety and ſecurity; but we ought likewiſe to do it for the 'ſake of juſtice. They never had any juſt claims or pretenſi-'ons whatever beyond theſe bounds, but what we once impru-'dently gave them in Nova Scotia, or what they have ſince 'uſurped by fraud or force.'

Let the foregoing abſtract ſuffice for a general idea of a work that abounds with truths, hitherto, perhaps, not generally attended to, and with obſervations and propoſals, that indicate the Author's knowlege of the ſubject, tho' his hints may not always be practicable, and his ardent zeal for the intereſts of Britain, tho' it often betrays him into national partiality.

One thing may be remarked however, with reſpect to the French, becauſe it would, perhaps, be equally true in regard to any other nation in the ſame circumſtances, viz. that they will hardly ever let us be at reſt in America, while we have ſo much to be robbed of there, and they have ſo little to loſe.

MONTHLY

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For AUGUST, 1757.
MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 1. *An Account of the Diſcoveries concerning Comets, with the Way to find their Orbits, and ſome Improvements in conſtructing and Calculating their Places. For which Reaſon are here added, new Tables, fitted to thoſe Purpoſes; particularly with regard to that Comet which is ſoon expected to return.* By Thomas Barker, Gent. 4to. 2s. 6d. Whiſton.

THE Aſtronomy of Comets (as Dr. Halley juſtly obſerves) may properly be ſaid to be yet in its infancy, no advances having been made in it before the laſt century. With regard to the antients, they knew little or nothing of their nature or motions. Diodorus Siculus, indeed, tells us, that the ancient Egyptians and Chaldeans were able, from a long ſeries of obſervations, to predict the appearances of Comets; but it muſt be remembered, that they are alſo ſaid to have known the times when ſtorms and earthquakes would happen: and, therefore, it is natural to conclude, that their knowlege conſiſted wholly in aſtrological calculations. They, however, conſidered them as wandering ſtars; an opinion, which all the antients were far from embracing; for ſome ſuppoſed them to be only mere appearances, formed either by reflection or refractions of the ſun's beams, having no real or diſtinct ſubſtance from other celeſtial bodies. Others believed them to be fiery meteors, generated of bituminous exhalations from our terraqueous globe, which being elevated to the higher regions of the atmoſphere, were there ſet on fire, and continued their appearance 'till all their ſulphureous particles were conſumed: while others conſidered them only as ominous phænomena, diſplayed by the Supreme Being, to terrify mankind, and warn them of the approach of ſome dreadful calamity.

The ſame opinion prevailed during the dark ages between the decline of the Roman Empire and the Reformation; and Apian was the firſt, who, about the year 1580, began to obſerve their motions aſtronomically. But it is to Sir Iſaac Newton that we are indebted for a true theory of the motion of Comets; and from the lights he has thrown on this abſtruſe part of aſtronomy, there is reaſon to hope that ſucceeding Aſtronomers will be able to carry this part of ſcience to the greateſt degree of perfection.

In order to this Mr. Barker has given us a new table of the parabola, by which the ſpace and diſtance from the focus, at all angles, are ſhewn: and which is, therefore, of the greateſt uſe in calculating the place of a Comet. He has alſo added the method of calculating this table, and the manner of conſtructing a Comet's motion in the moſt eaſy manner. The junior Mathematicians will be very much obliged to Mr. Barker, for the pains he has taken in explaining the famous problem of Sir Iſaac Newton, for finding a Comet's orbit from three obſervations.

In

The Comet which is next expected to appear, and which gave occaſion to the publication of this, as well as ſeveral other pamphlets on the ſame ſubject, has been obſerved to return at the different periods of ſeventy-five and ſeventy-ſix years alternately. 'The difference,' ſays Mr. Barker, 'is very great, conſidering how true the Planets 'motions are found to be; yet I fear we muſt not expect the ſame 'regularity in a Comet's orbit as in a Planet's, they being ſubject to 'many greater errors: firſt, croſſing all or moſt of the Planets paths, 'they may come nearer to one or other of them than any of the Pla'nets do to each other, and be more effected by their mutual attrac'tion; eſpecially if near Jupiter or Saturn, the greatneſs of which 'bodies, weaker power of the Sun, ſlowneſs of their motion, and, 'conſequently, long continuance near one another, and the direc'tion of the Comet's path nearly toward the Sun, all join to make 'the alteration of its orbit more ſenſible. 2dly, a ſmall change of 'angle will make little difference in a Planet's orbit, which is always 'nearly perpendicular to the Sun; but when a Comet's path makes 'only five or ten degrees angle with a line from the Sun, a little va'riation will bear a greater proportion to that ſmall angle than to 'ninety degrees. 3dly, As a Comet's greateſt diſtance is many times 'its leaſt, if by a Planet's attraction the perihelion is altered but a 'few miles, that may be greatly multiplied in the aphelion; and if 'the angle at firſt is changed but one minute, it may make a great 'alteration of length, in running four times as far as Saturn, and 'backing again. 4thly, There is but little difference in the velo'city of a body, going round the Sun in one or two hundred years, 'and of keeping a perfect parabola; ſmall, therefore, muſt be one 'revolving in ſeventy-five or ſeventy-ſix years, eſpecially if the ſame 'power which increaſes its velocity, ſhould make its perihelion diſ'tance greater. Now the Comet in its deſcent towards the Sun, may 'be near Mars, but that being ſmall will hardly affect it much; a'gain, in going from the Sun it may paſs near Venus, a little before 'it gets to the deſcending node, and near the earth a little after it: 'if then one or more of theſe Planets ſhould be in that part of their 'orbit when the Comet paſſes by, they may make ſome change in 'its motion.'

In this manner Mr. Barker accounts for the unequal periods of Comets; but whether they are owing to theſe, or other cauſes not yet diſcovered; or whether all the Comets are ſubject to theſe irregularities, muſt be determined by future obſervations.

Art. 2. *The Theory of Comets illuſtrated; in four Parts,* 1. *An Eſſay on the Natural Hiſtory and Philoſophy of Comets, being the Subſtance of all that has been hitherto publiſhed on that Head.* 2. *Tables containing the Elements of the Theory of a Comet's Motion, (in a Parabola or an Ellipſis) with their Nature and Uſe explained.* 3. *The Method of Conſtructing the Orbit of any Comet, and Computing its Place therein; its Latitude and Longitude, as ſeen from the Earth or Sun; its Diſtance, Velocity, Magnitude, Length of Tail, and other Particulars*

culars relative thereto. 4. The Method of delineating the viſible Path of a Comet in the Heavens, on the Surface of a Celeſtial Globe; and for drawing the Trajectory by Protraction with Scale and Compaſſes. The whole adapted to, and exemplified in, the Orbit of the Comet of the Year 1682, *whoſe Return is now near at hand. By* Benjamin Martin. 4to. 2s. 6d. Printed for the Author.

We have here a conciſe ſyſtem of the Philoſophy and Aſtronomy of Comets, extracted from the beſt Writers on theſe ſubjects, the principal of which are, Hevelius, Flamſtead, Newton, Halley, and De la Caille. The principles of Cometary Calculation are laid down in a plain and intelligible manner; ſo that thoſe who are acquainted with the doctrine of Trigonometry, will eaſily underſtand the ſeveral precepts delivered in this treatiſe, and be able to calculate the place and diſtance of a Comet, both from the Sun and the Earth, together with its longitude and latitude in the Ecliptic, at any given time during the Comet's appearance.

Art. 3. *An Account of the Remarkable Comet, whoſe Appearance is expected at the End of this preſent Year* 1757, *or at the Beginning of the Year* 1758: *With the dreadful Effects that may probably happen by its near Approach to the Earth's Orbit. Likewiſe Obſervations on the two other remarkable Comets, which are expected to appear in the Years* 1789 *and* 2255. *The whole illuſtrated with Reflections on the general Conflagration, &c. &c.* 8vo. 1s. No Printer's name.

The obſervations on Comets in this pamphlet are very ſuperficial and trifling; and thoſe relating to the Comet expected ſhortly to appear, are purloined from a print lately publiſhed by Mr. Martin, repreſenting the orbit of the ſaid Comet.

Art. 4. *A Diſcourſe on Comets. Containing a brief Deſcription of the true Syſtem of the World, and an Enumeration of all the Diſcoveries which have been yet made concerning thoſe temporary Appearances, with reſpect to their Orbits, Forms, Veloſity, Magnitudes, Diſtances, Tails, &c. particularly that whoſe Return is expected in this or the following Year. Extracted from the Writings of Sir Iſaac Newton, and other Aſtronomers. To which is added, the Opinion of that illuſtrious Author concerning the Uſe of Comets, the Origin of Matter, and his Definition of the Supreme Being of the Univerſe. Collected by* J. L. Cowley, Mathematician. 8vo. 1s. Payne.

This pamphlet is chiefly intended for thoſe who have not made any conſiderable progreſs in mathematical ſtudies, but at the ſame time are deſirous of forming ſome idea of the ſyſtem of the Univerſe, and particularly of thoſe revolving bodies called Comets, or Blazing Stars; and to ſuch it will prove very uſeful, every thing relating thereto being

ing laid down in a plain and familiar manner; and the ſeveral advances and improvements that have been made in this branch of Aſtronomy, particularly enumerated.

Art. 5. *A Journey from Calcutta in Bengal, by Sea, to Buſſerah: from thence acroſs the great Deſart to Aleppo: and from thence to Marſeilles, and through France to England. In the Year* 1750. *By Mr.* Bartholomew Plaiſted, *in the Eaſt-India Company's Service. To which are added, Directions by Capt.* Eliot Eliot, *for paſſing over the little Deſart, from Buſſerah, by the Way of Bagdat, Mouſul, Orfa, and Aleppo. Publiſhed from his original Manuſcript.* 12mo. 2s. 6s. Newbery.

This book principally conſiſts of Directions for Travellers, who may hereafter happen to make the ſame tour that our Author has taken; particularly with regard to the management of Expences, Conveniences, &c. As to the deſcriptive part of the work, Mr. Plaiſted has ſaved himſelf the trouble of drawing up any thing of that ſort, by borrowing moſtly from former Travellers, whoſe accounts are already before the public;—this, however, he does not do as a Plagiary, but honeſtly tells the truth. Thus, for inſtance, he acknowleges that his deſcription of Aleppo is taken from Dr Ruſſel; whoſe valuable work we lately had the pleaſure of peruſing*. But as to moſt of his other deſcriptions, viz. of Cyprus, Rhodes, Lyons, and Marſeilles, he contents himſelf with barely intimating, that he had them from Authors of credit, &c.

Upon the whole, tho' not a very important performance, Mr. Plaiſted's Journal is a uſeful, and, in ſome degree, an entertaining one: as he writes like an honeſt, and a ſenſible man, tho' not much like a man of letters.

* Review, vol. XV. page 135.

Art. 6. *A Treatiſe on Places and Preferments, eſpecially Church-Preferments. To which is added, a Letter concerning the Cauſes of Earthquakes, lately publiſhed in the Public Advertiſer, at the Requeſt of ſome Gentlemen; with a Supplement, containing ſome Remarks upon a Letter ſince received from a learned Correſpondent upon the ſame Subject. By the* Rev. W. Webſter, D. D. Vicar of Ware and Thundridge in Hertfordſhire. 8vo. 9d Ruſſel.

This Author ſets out with comparing the Body-Politic with the Animal Body; the various parts of one, to the great variety of arts, ſciences, employments, places, and offices of the other: and, by a parity of reaſoning, infers, concerning the latter, that they are *all* of them uſeful toward the *proſperity* of the whole! An aſſertion ſo unlimited, that, ſince his title-page ſhews places and preferments, eſpecially thoſe of the church, to be the objects of his attention,

tion, we believe none but Placemen will aſſent to it. But, as Hudibras quaintly remarks,

No Argument like matter of Fact is;

Therefore, if Spain, Portugal, or Italy, who are bleſſed with a comfortable ſwarm both of church and civil Placemen, are the happier, or the richer, on *that* account, then the Doctor's affirmation is true.

Our Author uſes many arguments to explain and defend the claims of the Miniſtry to rewards, dignities, and honours; the inſertion of which would doubtleſs have greatly enriched our Review, had we room for them: one, however, we cannot overlook; as it is a plea for the enjoyment of them which the moſt abandoned Athieſts, or inflexible Heretics, cannot, with all their ſophiſtical reaſonings diſallow; namely, 'the *poſitive appointment of the Law of the Land*;' an argument, we muſt concur with him in calling unanſwerable.—He next appeals to 'the expreſs command of God, in his written word.' Which *expreſs command* is a paſſage in St. Paul, importing, *Thoſe who have laboured in the word and doctrine are worthy of double honour.* But, aſking Doctor Webſter's pardon, this text he ſeems to have ſtrangely miſunderſtood; ſince, whatever degree of reverence may be due to Preachers of the *uncorrupted* Goſpel, it cannot intend lucrative or *worldly* dignities, ſo often, and ſo emphatically, diſclaimed by the *meek and lowly* Jeſus.

The Doctor, who appears extremely fond of parallels and ſimilies, illuſtrates his argument by a compariſon between Profeſſors of the Goſpel and Profeſſors of Phyſic: and after *ſuppoſing*, and *farther ſuppoſing*, ſtill unſatisfied, he ſhifts the ſcene, and you again behold them likened to a number of Truſtees for a charity; and, with the aſſiſtance of a mathematical ſimile, concerning the points of contact between two planes, as likewiſe between two globes, the curtain drops, and the matter is left——juſt as it was found!

As the Clergy, according to our Author, ſhould be gratified with diſtinctions of honour and profit, proportioned to their merit, (for he proteſts againſt the Levelling ſcheme) the impoſſibility, he aſſerts, of doing this without a junction of Livings, naturally leads ſo true a ſon of the church to introduce a few words in defence of Pluralities; adding, 'I am perſuaded that the credit and intereſt of the body of the 'Clergy cannot be ſupported under the preſent ſtate of the church 'without them.'—Another great grievance preſenting itſelf to the good Doctor, relates to country Miniſters in market-towns; many of the people, he ſays, are low in their extraction, narrow in their education, turbulent in their nature, and ungovernable by any thing but *mere Power*; and if any one ſpends more money, or has more to ſpend, than the poor Vicar, he will think himſelf ſo much a better, and a greater man than his Paſtor. From ſuch complaints as theſe, a harſh-judging Reader might be led to conclude, that the Doctor would rather ſee every Clergyman the richeſt man in his pariſh, than the pariſhioners notions rectified by *true* chriſtian principles!

The

The State of the Church being, in our Author's eſtimation, ſo very bad, it is no wonder, that, like Demetrius of old, he ſhould conclude that, 'Religion has been manifeſtly declining in this nation for ſome 'time; the welfare of the public has been declining as faſt; and un-'leſs the former, by the encouragement and example of great men, 'can recover its credit and intereſt, they muſt ſoon ſink together.'—At the cloſe of this diviſion of his pamphlet we are preſented with an abſtract of his perſonal hiſtory; in which, notwithſtanding all his merit, he thinks he has been very ill uſed; and is, conſequently, very angry. We are now arrived at a diſquiſition which, to be ſure, has great affinity with what went before, and is——On the Cauſe of Earthquakes. Theſe are very logically proved to be dreadful Judgments; and this diſquiſition is poſſibly ſubjoined, that the foregoing expoſtulations may be impreſſed the deeper on our minds.—However, this part having, as the title imports, been formerly printed, we here take leave both of it, and our Author; but we would humbly hint the following wholeſome exhortation at parting, delivered by no leſs a perſon than Chriſt himſelf,

> 'Learn of me, for I am meek and lowly in heart: and ye 'ſhall find reſt unto your ſouls.'

Art. 7. *A General Index to the Spectators, Tatlers, and Guardians.* 12mo. 2s. 6s. Owen.

The following quotation from the Preface, will ſuffice for an article which is ſo far ſerviceable as it proves correct. 'The preſent un-'dertaking is an endeavour to make theſe ineſtimable writings more 'uſeful; for their variety conſiſting of ſeveral thouſand articles, diſ-'perſed in fourteen volumes, and refered to in fourteen different In-'dexes, rendered a work of this kind neceſſary, where the ſeveral 'ſubjects may be eaſily traced, by having recourſe to one general 'Index.'

Art. 8. *Memoirs of the Field-Marſhal Leopold Count Daun: Tranſlated from a French Manuſcript, and interſperſed with many curious Anecdotes; among which is a full and particular Account of Field-Marſhal Keith.* By Andrew Henderſon, M. A. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Withy.

SPECIMEN, taken from the Author's account of the battle of Dettingen.

'As the flower of the French troops were on the ſpot, their ex-'pectations ſanguine, and their hopes full, ſo they uſed their utmoſt 'endeavours, and by the frequent return to the charge, even ſeemed 'to bid fair for the victory. The laſt time they returned, they raiſed 'a loud huzza, which ſtill intimidated the more: the only way left 'was to fortify theſe army againſt theſe threatning acclamations. The 'Generals ſaw thoroughly into the extent of the ſcheme; "O (ſays "Stair) I will do the buſineſs;" 'ſo, riding on a fine dapple-grey 'horſe of his own training, and at the head of the line, he took off 'his hat, "Now, Gentlemen, raiſe an huzza, and my life for it the

"victory is ours." 'The huzza was general through the army; at 'which his Lordſhip laughed very heartily, and with as much compoſure as if drinking a diſh of chocolate with ſome Ladies of the 'firſt quality, he ſaid, "If I dont beat them by firing I'll beat them 'by huzzaing." 'The French ſoon became affrighted, the Hanoverian cannon were brought up to bear upon their flanks, ſo that a 'retreat was ſounded; and tho' the ſame was conducted by the moſt 'ſcheming General of the times, it was yet far from being regular.'

Art. 9. *Mr. Bower's Reply to a ſcurrilous Libel, intitled, A full Confutation, &c.* 8vo. 1s. Sandby.

In this Reply Mr. Bower paſſes ſlightly over the grand articles of the charge brought againſt him by his adverſaries, and dwells principally upon ſuch matters as have little connection with the capital point of his accuſation. He ſets out with acquainting the Reader, that it was not his intention to have troubled the public any more, on a ſubject that may be no leſs diſagreeable to them than to him, but as the *Full Confutation* contains a ſeventh Letter to Father Sheldon, and many other *demonſtrative proofs* confirming the charge againſt him, he reſumes the ſubject, principally with a view to examine theſe *demonſtrative proofs*, which, if ſuffered to paſs unexamined, he acknowleges, might ſtagger ſome well-meaning Proteſtants.

The ſeveral articles of his accuſation, with his anſwers to them, he places oppoſite to each other, by way of *Charge* and *Defence*, in one and the ſame page; and begins with the diſagreement between Father Piazza's account and his, of the ſtory of the *Country Clergyman*, whence his Antagoniſt, he ſays, has taken occaſion to *diſplay his threat, and exclaim, and declaim, and abuſe, and rail, like a madman, for ſeveral pages together.*—But what does he ſay in regard to this diſagreement? Why, he tells us, that he related the ſtory not from Piazza's book, but upon memory, after above thirty years;—his diſagreement with Piazza, therefore, he ſays, does not impeach his veracity, but only his memory.—This, ſurely, wants no comment.

We ſhall give another ſpecimen of his manner of vindicating himſelf. He is charged by his Antagoniſt with having been at *Confeſſion*, oftener than once within theſe twelve years. In anſwer to this, he tells us, that if he was at Confeſſion within theſe twelve years, he was at Confeſſion while he joined in Communion with the Church of England; while he expoſed, in all companies, the wicked doctrines and ſuperſtitious practices of Popery; while he led the life of a Proteſtant, and a Lay-man; and, conſequently, when he knew that no Prieſt, no not even the Pope himſelf, could abſolve him; nay, when he knew that inſtead of having *the ſtains of his frailties and follies waſhed out by that ceremony*, he ſhould have added a new *ſtain* to them worſe than all the reſt, that of Sacrilege, or the abuſe of a Sacrament.—All this amounts, no doubt, to a convincing proof of his not having been at *Confeſſion* within theſe twelve years!

However, to do Mr Bower juſtice, it muſt be acknowleged, that if a Defence was proper in his ſituation, he has made as good a one

as

could have been expected from him; but a full Vindication of INNOCENCE, we apprehend, would have worn an aſpect very different from what is here offered to the public.

Art. 10. *The Auction, as it has been acted ſeveral nights with great applauſe, at the Theatre-Royal, in the Hay-market, Mr. Cibber Auctioneer.* 8vo. 6d. Baily.

Alas! poor Cibber!

Art. 11. *The Proceedings on the Trial of Capt. G——, late of his Majeſty's ſhip the Severn, on an action on the caſe wherein the damages ſued for was* 10,000 l. *for crim. con. with Ad——l K——'s lady; which was tried in the court of King's-Bench, at Guildhall, by a ſpecial jury, June* 11, 1757, *when one thouſand pounds damages were given to the plaintiff.* 8vo. 1s. H. Owen.

As this publication carries with it all the marks of being what our London printers call a *fudge*, we can have nothing further to ſay to it: except it be to note two curious particulars, which are wiſely and pertinently noted * by the Author, viz. That '*Aix-la-Chapelle* is a 'great and ſtrong city of Germany; and that *Jamaica* is a large iſland 'in America; firſt diſcovered by Columbus, a Portugueſe,' &c. &c. &c. The Author ſeems to have been much obliged to Eachard's Newſman's Interpreter, or Salmon's Gazetteer, as to any other authorities, for the materials of which this pamphlet is compoſed.

* Vid. p. 10, and 16.

Art. 12. *A Letter from Mr. Lee to Mr. Sheridan.* 8vo. 6d. Dublin printed, and ſold alſo by J. Scott, in Pater-noſter-row, London.

Relates to ſome differences betwixt theſe two theatrical gentlemen, concerning Mr. Lee's ſalary, and other private concerns; in which Mr. Sherridan is accuſed of having, as a manager, dealt unhandſomely by the Writer of this epiſtle. On the other hand, in vindication of Mr. Sherridan, a half ſheet has been publiſhed in Dublin, entitled, *Remarks on Mr. Lee's Letter*, &c. And it ſeems to us, that the Remarker has greatly the advantage in the conteſt.

Art. 13. *The Book of Lamentations. Being the ſoliloquy of an old man for the loſs of his houſe.* 8vo. 6d. Grafhenheim.

Hanover (*a country*, and not *an old man*, as this lying title-page ſets forth) is here repreſented as bewailing the misfortunes that have befallen her, in conſequence of the late ſucceſſes of the French under Marſhal d'Eſtrees. Theſe lamentations, however, are moſt lamentably nonſenſical and ridiculous throughout.

Art. 14. *A Letter of Conſolation to a noble Lady, upon the differences between her and her Lord.* 12mo. 6d. Noble, &c.

By the ſtile this ſeems to be an old tract, reprinted, without any deſign of particular application to preſent times, or perſons now living: it is a ſober piece, exhorting the Lady to patience, and religious reſignation, under the ill treatment of her vicious huſband.

Art. 15. *An hiſtorical Account of the Knights of the moſt noble Order of the Garter, from its firſt inſtitution, in the year* 1350, *to the preſent time. By* John Buſwell, *one of the Gentlemen of his Majeſty's Chapel-Royal, and of his Majeſty's free Chapel of St. George, at Windſor.* 8vo. 4s. Griffiths, &c.

'The inſtitution of this order, the ſtatutes, and all the ceremonies thereunto belonging, have ſo fully and largely been treated of by Peter Heylin and Thomas Dawſon, Doctors in Divinity; Elias Aſhmole, Eſq; Windſor Herald at Arms; John Anſtis, Eſq; Garter King at Arms; and Mr. Joſeph Pote, of Eton, in Bucks, that it would be needleſs here to repeat them.—The preſent deſign, therefore, is briefly to give ſuch account of thoſe illuſtrious Knights who have been companions of this moſt noble Order, as may in ſome meaſure ſhew the cauſe of their being admitted to ſo high a dignity.' *Pref.* p. v. Mr. Buſwell ſeems to have executed this deſign with all the requiſite care and exactneſs; and his work forms no unentertaining ſyſtem of biographical anecdotes.

Art. 16. *The Ceremoniale at the Inſtallation of the Knights of the Garter, in the chapel of St. George, within the caſtle of Windſor.* 8vo. 6d. Printed for R. Weſtcote, Bookſeller, at Windſor, and ſold by R. Griffiths, London.

A Windſor-inſtallation may be a very fine ſhew, and the ſight may afford ſufficient amuſement; but it ſeems a moſt tedious piece of mummery in print.

POLITICAL.

Art. 17. *Some General Thoughts on Government, and particularly on the preſent ſtate of affairs.* 8vo. 6d. Cooper.

The Author of this pamphlet ſeems to be in circumſtances that will not allow us to laugh at him; otherwiſe his production might afford ample ſcope for diverſion. We hope, however, the Gentleman's friends will take care of him, and ſee that he does nothing worſe than a little harmleſs ſcribbling.

If our Readers are not ſatisfied with the above intimation concerning theſe General Thoughts, we beg their pardon; but really we can ſay nothing much more to the purpoſe, of a piece that has neither beginning, nor end, nor deſign, nor meaning whatever, that we can diſcover.

Art. 18. *A Letter from the late Earl of H———n, in the Elyſian Shades, to his G—— the D— of D———t. With a poſtſcript to the Earl of H—ld—e.* Folio, 4d. Cooke.

Abuſes the D— of D——t, on the ſuppoſition of his retiring with a penſion, as was reported at the time of a late change in the adminiſtration. The poſtſcript to L— H—— may ſerve as a ſpecimen of this little ſquib,

'I beg

'I beg your G— will make my beſt compliments to L—d H—l-
'd——e. I heartily wiſh I had foreſeen his intention of reſigning.
'I ſhould not have failed to appear to him in the dead of night, be-
'tween the ninth and tenth of June, with the ſhadow of a blue rib-
'bon in my hand. It is now too late, and I can only adviſe him, if
'he be uſed as he deſerves, to bear it without complaining, and not
'vainly expect ſupport from thoſe who ſet him on. But between
'you and me, my Lord, what had he to do with politics and reſigna-
'tions? His Lordſhip ſhould have relied on the neceſſary and honou-
'rable compliances, which, with his own inſignificance, got him his
'employment. Let him learn, that it is not for him to give himſelf
'airs of murmuring and reſentment, like a Cheſterfield, or a Bed-
'ford. Cuzzoni deſires his Lordſhip to make her compliments to
'the Mingotti.

Art. 19. *Conſiderations on the preſent Coalition of Parties. By an* Independent Whig. Folio, 6d. Robinſon.

Our honeſt Whig ſeems highly delighted with a junction which 'paints ſo fair a proſpect of ſucceſsful, popular, and conſtitutional 'meaſures: a junction which re-eſtabliſhes the royal tranquility, and 'removes thoſe thorns which have been too long planted on the pil-'low of Majeſty.'—We ſincerely hope and wiſh, that our Author's loyal expectations may be fully anſwered.

POETICAL.

Art. 20. *Love Triumphant. A Tale in verſe. By* W. H. Smyth, *Gent.* 4to. 1s. Comyns.

The ſtory of Eginhart and the Princeſs Imma, *Spect.* vol. III. numb. 181, is here *done* into the vileſt doggrel.

Art. 21. *Poems on ſeveral occaſions. By* Samuel Boyce. 8vo. 5s. Dodſley, &c.

The beſt poems in this indifferent collection have already appeared ſeparately, and were mentioned in the Review as they were publiſhed *. From the frontiſpiece it appears, that the Writer's ordinary occupation interferes with his poetical one; we would therefore adviſe him, by all means, induſtriouſly to cultivate the former, rather than the latter: for when friends are grown weary of ſubſcribing, he may have but too much leiſure to reflect, that his dangling after the Muſes was at beſt but deluſive trifling:

Verſus inopes rerum nugæque canoræ.

* Review, Vol. XII. p. 351. and Vol. XIII. p. 457.

Art. 22. *Poems by ſeveral Gentlemen of Oxford.* 8vo. 6d. Baldwin.

The pieces in this little aſſemblage may alſo come under Horace's notion of *chiming trifles*. Vid. Art. 21.

Art. 23. *The Inſects chooſe a Miniſter. A Fable.* 4to. 1s. Owen.

We imagine this political poem was intended to compliment the favourite Deumvirate, who, however, we are ſatisfied, will never, in re-

return, compliment the Author on his poetry. The inſects that appear as candidates for the place of Prime Miniſter, are the ſlug, the ſnail, the waſp, the flea, the ſpider, the butterfly, the death watch, the book-worm, and the ant: each urges his claim, and pleads his ability for diſcharging the office; but the ant only is accepted, on account of his œconomical virtues.

A loud applauſe joy'd millions ſing,
The Ants are choſe to ſerve their King.

RELIGIOUS *and* CONTROVERSIAL.

Art. 24. *The Reviewers review'd; or, a Letter to the Authors of the Monthly Review, from the Rev. Thomas M'Donnel, D. D. Author of the Defence of the Athanaſian Creed, &c. Concerning the firſt article of their Review for March,* 1757. 8vo. 6d. Cooke.

That a defender of the Athanaſian Creed ſhould quarrel with the Monthly Review, is extremely natural, and the Authors have not the leaſt objection to it. However, it was not fair and honourable dealing in Dr. M'Donnel to purloin from our old friend, Dr. Free, the *title-page** with which he has thought proper to decorate his preſent performance. But, perhaps, as Engliſh books may be legally reprinted in Ireland, this zealous Athanaſian might hold himſelf juſtified by his national privilege, had he even made *free* with the *whole* of the Britiſh Divine's performance; and, indeed, if Dr M'Donnel had ploughed *only* with Dr. Free's heifer, inſtead of yoking her with his own Hibernian bull, the conſequence might have been, a more plenteous crop of reputation, and a finer harveſt of honour, than he is likely to reap by truſting entirely to his own abilities.

* Vid. Review, Vol. XIII. p. 143.

Art. 25. *The Reaſonableneſs and Equity of the preſent Eſtabliſhment of Tithes. A Letter to a Quaker, in anſwer to an old Treatiſe revived, written by Anthony Pearſon, and entitled,* The great Caſe of Tithes truly ſtated, clearly opened, and fully reſolved. *By* James Baldwin, *late Rector of Bunwell and Carlton-Rode, Norfolk.* Norwich, printed by Chaſe, and ſold by Cooper, &c. London.

A very judicious and ſolid defence of the proviſional eſtabliſhment of tithes; againſt which, much obſtinate and ignorant oppoſition hath been made. However, as this *mode* of providing for the Clergy has proved ſo diſagreeable to many of the Laity, from their miſapprehenſion of its nature and equity, and as ſo much wrangling and diſcord has been promoted by it, 'tis pity ſome leſs obnoxious way is not introduced.

Art. 26. *A Cabinet of Jewels, opened to the Curious, by a Key of real Knowlege. Containing a great number of ſayings and ſentences,*

Sentences, collected from Heathen Authors and others. Applied and adapted to the various ſtates of mankind. By Charles Bradbury, *Miniſter of the Goſpel.* 12mo. 1s. Lewis.

A miſerable haſh, cooked up by an illiterate, but aſſuming fanatic, in order to take in the ignorant; and no doubt he will find cuſtomers enough; eſpecially among thoſe 'ſilly women, laden with ſins,' who are eternally gadding after every ſtrange fellow that has art and impudence enough to ſet up for a preacher.

Art. 27. *Sermons on practical Subjects. Inſcribed to the clergy of Kilmore and Ardagh. By the Right Rev.* Joſiah Hort, *D. D. Lord Biſhop of thoſe Dioceſes; late Lord Archbiſhop of Tuam, Primate and Metropolitan of Conaught.* Dublin printed, London reprinted, for Davis and Reymers. 8vo. 5s.

'Concerning the preſent edition, it may be proper,' ſays the Editor, 'to obſerve, that it differs from that printed at Dublin * in 'nothing more than the addition of the ſeventeenth ſermon; which 'was preached at the Archdeacon's viſitation at Ailesbury, in 1708, 'and firſt printed the ſame year.'—Thus much may ſuffice, concerning a work which does not come more particularly under our conſideration, as being firſt publiſhed ſo many years ago.

* By George Grierſon, in the year 1738.

Art. 28. *A ſhort but ſufficient Confutation of the Rev. Dr. Warburton's projected defence (as he calls it) of Chriſtianity, in his Divine Legation of Moſes. In a Letter to the Right Rev. the Lord Biſhop of London. By* William Law, *A. M.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Richardſon.

Thoſe who are acquainted with Mr. Law's peculiar notions will not expect that we ſhould take up much time or paper with an account of this performance.—The deſign of it is to prove, againſt Dr. Warburton, and the Author of the *Free and candid examination of the Biſhop of London's ſermons, &c.* that there is not, in all the New Teſtament, one ſingle text, which either in the letter or the ſpirit proves, or has the leaſt tendency, or deſign to prove, that the *immortality* of the ſoul, or its perpetual duration after the death of the body, was not an univerſal, commonly received opinion in, and through, every age of the world, from Adam to Chriſt; that this doctrine, or belief of a future ſtate, was not *deſignedly ſecreted*, or *induſtriouſly hidden*, from the eyes of the people of God, by Moſes, neither by the types and figures of the law, nor by any other part of his writings; that the true ground, method, and power of Chriſtian redemption to eternal life, preached by the Apoſtles, began with Adam, was the religion of Adam, and of all his deſcendants; and that the writings of Moſes, and the Patriarchal faith, give the very ſame full proof of the immortality of the ſoul, or a future ſtate, as the Goſpel doth.—Theſe are the points Mr. Law endeavours to prove, but ſuch as are deſirous of ſeeing what he advances in ſupport of them, muſt have recourſe to his performance.

Art. 29.

Art. 29. *The Sufficiency of the external Evidence of the Goſpel farther ſupported, againſt the Reply of the Rev. Mr. Heathcote, to St. Peter's Chriſtian Apology, written in defence of a ſermon, entitled,* The Chriſtian Apology, *lately publiſhed at Oxford, at the requeſt of the Vice-Chancellor, and other Heads of Houſes. By* Thomas Patten, *D. D. Fellow of Corpus Chriſti College.* 8vo. 1 s. 6d. Rivington.

As it may be fairly preſumed, that ſuch of our Readers as are converſant with our modern Polemics, are already ſufficiently acquainted with Dr. Patten's ſentiments in regard to the external evidence of the Goſpel, and with what he has advanced in defence of his ſermon, entitled, *The Chriſtian Apology*, againſt Mr. Heathcote, a particular account of the piece now before us cannot be thought neceſſary. In controverſies of this kind, the combatants generally exert the whole of their ſtrength in their firſt attacks, ſo that when the diſpute is ſpun out to any conſiderable length, the Reader is preſented with little more than a repetition of what has been urged before. We ſhall content ourſelves therefore with obſerving in general, without taking upon us to decide upon the merits of the cauſe, that the Doctor has ſo far the advantage of his antagoniſt, in that he ſhews a greater regard to good manners, and is more conſiſtent with himſelf.

It may not be improper likewiſe to obſerve, that in an advertiſement prefixed to this performance, the Doctor has charged *Us* with joining in the unreaſonable clamour that has been raiſed againſt the Chriſtian Apology, though we have, in an ample and unlimited manner, eſpouſed that very principle which gave riſe to the clamour. Now if the Reader caſts his eye upon the account we gave of Mr. Heathcote's Anſwer to St. Peter's Chriſtian Apology, in our Review for March laſt, he will find the following paſſage. 'Few of thoſe 'who have exerciſed their thoughts upon the ſubject, will go ſuch 'lengths againſt the uſe of reaſon, we apprehend, as Dr. Patten has 'done; though, at the ſame time, we cannot help thinking, that 'there is a great deal of truth in what he ſays, concerning the advan'tage given the Deiſts, by the manner in which many of our modern 'Divines have argued in defence of Chriſtianity. The Divinity of 'our Saviour's miſſion may undoubtedly be proved in a very ſatis'factory manner, without entering into metaphyſical reaſonings and 'diſquiſitions, concerning the diſpenſations of Providence, or attempt'ing to aſſign reaſons for the Divine conduct, in caſes where we 'muſt neceſſarily be ſuppoſed very incompetent judges,' &c.

This is the paſſage the Doctor refers to, and on which he grounds the charge he has brought againſt us. Now we cannot ſee that there is any inconſiſtency in allowing that there is a great deal of truth in what is advanced in the Chriſtian Apology, and the defence of it, concerning the advantage given the Deiſts, by the manner in which many of our modern Divines have argued in defence of Chriſtianity, and intimating, that the Author of the Chriſtian Apology, &c. has gone too great lengths againſt the uſe of reaſon in religious matters. The proper method of defending Chriſtianity, and the province of reaſon

reaſon in religion, are certainly two diſtinct points; and a Writer may have truth on his ſide in what he ſays concerning the one, and yet be much miſtaken in what he ſays concerning the other. This we take to be the caſe with Dr. Patten; who, we cannot help thinking, has gone unwarrantable lengths in treating of the powers of reaſon. He affirms (St. Peter's Chriſt. Apology, p. 33.) that all divine knowlege comes by communication from God, and that it is an idle, fruitleſs taſk, to examine and compare our own abſtract ideas, for finding out him, or his ways and purpoſes, beyond what he hath revealed of them. Again, p. 78. he tells us, that ſince the world began it has never been ſeen, that any philoſopher found out the Being of a ſelf-exiſtent infinitely wiſe, and powerful Spirit, the creator and preſerver of all things, by reaſoning, either upwards from *effects*, or downwards from *antecedent neceſſity*; and that an attempt to demonſtrate this truth from natural principles, is as wiſe, and as thankful, as if he to whom a kind friend hath diſcovered a hidden treaſure, ſhould ſet his faculties to work, in endeavouring to make it appear, that he could have found the treaſure by his own ſearch, if it had not been pointed out to him. In p. 79, he further tells us, that he would refer the ſtudent in theology, for a proof of the exiſtence of God, not to the argument, *à priori*, of Dr. Clark, nor to the arguments, *a poſteriori*, of Lock and Wollaſton, but to thoſe paſſages of *his* word, upon which the firſt of the thirty-nine articles of the church of England was founded. And it muſt be obſerved, he ſays, that in this article there are certain aſſertions, built upon the authority of Scripture, relating to the triune ſubſiſtence of the Godhead, which are entirely excluded out of the *demonſtrations* of the philoſophers above named, who therefore cannot be ſaid, even ſuppoſing their demonſtrations concluſive, to help us to a knowlege of the true nature and attributes of God.—There are ſeveral other paſſages to the ſame purpoſe; but theſe, we apprehend, are ſufficient to juſtify us in ſaying, that the Doctor has gone too great lengths, in treating of the powers of reaſon, though we ſtill think that there is a great deal of truth in what he ſays concerning the proper method of defending Chriſtianity.

Art. 30. *A Letter written May* 11, 1749. *to the late reverend and learned Mr. Whiſton; being a full and particular anſwer to his friendly Addreſs to the Baptiſts, concerning his charge of imperfections, and many other things therein contained.* By Grantham Killingworth. 8vo. 1 s. Baldwin.

Mr. Killingworth has greatly the advantage in this revival of his diſpute with Mr. Whiſton, about rituals; for Mr. Whiſton is dead, and Mr. Killingworth lives,—to remind us of the old proverb, *A living* Dog *is better than a dead* Lion.

Art. 31. *Remarks on Mr. David Hume's Eſſay on the Natural Hiſtory of Religion. Addreſſed to the Reverend Dr. Warburton.* 8vo. 1 s. Cooper.

Theſe Remarks are addreſſed to Dr. Warburton, as to the ſuppoſed Author of the *Four Letters on Lord Bolingbroke's Philoſophy*, and un-

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der this character, our Author ſays, the Doctor has a right to them as being little more than his own Remarks, only tranſferred from a Patrician to a Plebeian Naturaliſt.

It might have been expected, this Remarker tells us, that after ſo complete a conqueſt as Dr. Warburton had gained over Lord Bolingbroke, the rabble of the enemy, after their Chieftain was ſubdued, would have diſperſed, at leaſt, that they would not have rallied again, till in future times ſome other Champion of their cauſe, as illuſtrious by his name and quality, ſhould ariſe to reconduct them to the charge.

'But, alas!' continues he, 'the irreligious ſpirit, tho' it may be 'diſgraced, is not ſo eaſily ſuppreſſed. Ere the public had time to 'celebrate your triumphs, behold a puny Dialietician from the North '(for as Eraſmus long ſince obſerved, *Scoti* DIALECTICIS ARGEN-'TIIS *ſibi blandiuntur*), all over armed with doubts and diſputation, 'ſteps forth into his place, and, with the ſame beggarly troop of 'routed Sophiſms, comes again to the attack.

'But now, as the enemy is ſo contemptible, and the danger ſo lit-'tle preſſing, you may well enjoy your repoſe, and leave it to ſome 'inferior hand to chaſtiſe his inſolence. And the very weakeſt may 'be equal to this attempt. For nothing remains but to employ a-'gainſt them the weapons which you have furniſhed; in a word, to 'draw again that Sword of the Spirit, which you had borrowed from 'the Sanctuary, and whoſe reſiſtleſs ſplendour flaſhes, if not convic-'tion, yet confuſion in every face.

'To this office I preſume to devote myſelf. I have a portion, at 'leaſt of your zeal to animate my endeavours. And if my talents 'ſhould be found as mean as thoſe of my adverſary, this circum-'ſtance would not diſcourage me. The conteſt would only be more 'equal; and in ſuch a quarrel the ſerious advocate for religion would 'be ſorry to owe his ſucceſs to any thing but the goodneſs of his 'cauſe.'

After this introduction, and a page or two concerning himſelf, addreſſed to Dr. Warburton, he proceeds to his Remarks, which, he tells us, are ſuch as occurred to him on a ſingle reading of the Eſſay; were entered haſtily on the margin, as he went along; and are now tranſcribed, with little or no variation, for the public uſe. He entreats the public not to be offended with this appearance of neglect, and acquaints us, that he never deſigned his animadverſions for an elaborate piece of inſtruction or entertainment to the learned Reader, being only the employment of a vacant hour, to expoſe to the laughter of every man, that can read, the futility, licence, and vanity of Mr. DAVID HUME.

Such is the account our Author gives of his Remarks, which are written in a ſmart lively manner, pretty much in the ſpirit of Dr. Warburton; and are intended to point out the contradictions and inconſiſtencies that are to be met with in Mr. Hume's Eſſay. The religion which Mr. Hume means to recommend in his Natural Hiſtory,

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our Remarker ſays, is *Naturaliſm*, or the belief of a Creator and phyſical Preſerver, but not moral Governor. Of the truth of this every Reader of the Eſſay muſt be left to judge for himſelf.

Art. 32. *The Temple of Virtue. A Dream. Publiſhed from an original Manuſcript. By* James Fordyce, Miniſter at Alloa. 12mo. 1s. 6d. Field.

This inſtructive and entertaining little piece, which is written in a very elegant manner, is introduced with a ſhort account of the method which the Author purſued in the education of a young Nobleman entruſted to his care. The youth had lively parts, a large ſhare of imagination, and was peculiarly fond of tales, novels, romances, and the ſprightlier kinds of poetry. He had an averſion to the ſober and ſevere productions of philoſophy, and could not endure the precepts of morality, unleſs they were conveyed in ſome agreeable vehicle, borrowed from the ſtores of *Fancy*: he was fond of pleaſure; his paſſions were naturally ſtrong; and unhappily for him, his parents had, by a cruel indulgence, added greatly to their ſtrength.

What method was proper for correcting the irregularities of ſuch a wanton imagination, and weakening thoſe paſſions which every thing had contributed to ſtrengthen? Grave admonitions would have revolted ſuch a gay and giddy ſpirit at once: dry arguments would have been equally diſagreeable to a mind never accuſtomed to argue: and airs of authority would have proved ſtill more diſguſtful to a youth ſo indulged. Here then our Tutor ſhewed his judgment, and how well qualified he was for the diſcharge of the important truſt aſſigned him. The method he purſued, was to turn his Pupils paſſions, as it were, againſt themſelves, by leading him to *virtue* in the road of *entertainment*; to inſinuate a taſte for learning, and the love of goodneſs, by exhibiting thoſe venerable forms in lights the moſt familiar and inviting; in ſhort, by arraying *wiſdom* in the robes of *fancy*, and ſhewing her in all her ſweeteſt ſmiles, to captivate his heart at unawares, and thus to make that very faculty which till now had been a handmaid of *folly*, ſervant to her divine antagoniſt. Such was the plan on which he proceeded: he gives a pretty full account of the judicious and agreeable manner in which he conducted it, which it would give us pleaſure to inſert, but we muſt content ourſelves with recommending it to the peruſal of our Readers, thoſe, eſpecially, who are concerned in the moſt important of all employments, that of education.

In order to inſpire his Pupil with a taſte for the ſubſtantial joys of virtue, and to point out the folly and wretchedneſs of thoſe who deviating from her paths, wander into the purlieus of *forbidden pleaſure*, where all is falſe and fugitive, and where a tranſcient gleam of flaſhy gratifications is ſucceeded by a long winter of ſolid miſery.—our worthy Tutor tells us, that he read to him the Dream concerning Pleaſure, in the ſecond volume of Dialogues on Education. He was ſenſibly touched by it; and when his Tutor had done reading, aſked why the Writer had not publiſhed ſuch another Dream concerning Virtue,

Virtue, which, he ſaid, would have been as inſtructive, and vaſtly more delightful.

This the Tutor looked upon as no unreaſonable thought, and has accordingly given us *ſuch another Dream*, which like that concerning *Pleaſure*, is pregnant with the moſt uſeful inſtruction. To give a particular account of it, would certainly be deemed unneceſſary; all we ſhall ſay therefore concerning it is, that an elegance and ſimplicity of manner appears through the whole compoſition; with a neatneſs and purity of language that muſt recommend it to every Reader of taſte.

ERRATA *in the* Reviews *for* May, June, *and* July *laſt; excluſive of thoſe mentioned at the end of the* Review *for* June, *viz.*

In May Review.—P. 434, l. 9. for *employ*, read *imply*.

In June Review.—P. 521, l. 2. for Malachi, iv. 1—16. r. Mal. iv. 5. Ibid. l. 28, 29. for Job xix. — 27. r. Job xix. 25—27. P. 525, the catch-word at the bottom, for *Dieſkaw*, r. *Wraxal*. P. 550, l. 29. dele *ſome*. P. 556. in the beginning of the laſt paragraph, the references to Dr. Hunter's paper on *aneuriſms* are wrong; and the words *treated—with great contempt* have been juſtly objected to, as they were too haſtily put down, and really imply more than the Reviewer meant; pleaſe to correct the four firſt lines of the ſaid paragraph thus, 'We are not a little ſurprized, 'that in remark the *fourth* the Doctor hath, as it ſhould ſeem, 'contemptuouſly paſſed over two Writers of the moſt diſtinguiſhed 'abilities;—and yet in another, numb. 23, hath adopted a very great 'improvement made by one of thoſe gentlemen, &c. P. 558. l. 13. dele *to*. P. 565. in the fourth line of the title of article 6, for *iuclufive*, r. *inconcluſive*. P. 567. l. 3. of the title of article 8. dele *and*. P. 579. l. 36. after *you*, dele *on*. P. 580, l. 3. for *your by*, r. *by your*. P. 586, l. 8. of the account of article 22, for *poſſid*. r. *poſſeſſed*.

In the Appendix.—P. 579, l. 16. dele *alone*. Ibid. l. 36. after *motive*, the particle *of* is wanting. P. 580, l. 8, from the bottom, for *ſaving*, r. *ſaying*. P. 603, l. 5, of the account of article 23, for *courſe*, r. *coarſe*. P. 607. the catch-word at the bottom, for *man*, r. *properly*.

In July Review.—P. 7. l. ult. for *two*, r. *too*. P. 29. l. 1. of the laſt paragraph, dele *and*. P. 32. l. 14. for *muſt*, read *might*. P. 36. l. 10. for *congious*, r. *contagious*. P. 80. l. 11. dele *it*. P. 85. l. 6. for *take*, r. *taken*.

N. B. As we have very little time for reviſing and correcting our articles, it is impoſſible but many errors, and ſome miſtakes, muſt happen; we ſhall therefore be truly thankful to any of our Readers who will be ſo kind as to intimate whatever defects of that ſort may fall under their notice, by a line left with our Publiſher: due acknowlegement of ſuch favours will always be made, and the faults rectified in the next publication.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For SEPTEMBER, 1757.

The Britiſh Cuſtoms: containing an hiſtorical and practical account of each branch of that revenue; the rates of merchandize, as ſettled by the 12th of Car. II. *cap.* 4, *and* 11. *Geo.* I. *cap.* 7, *&c. with the nett duties payable in all circumſtances of goods imported, exported, or brought coaſtwiſe, and the nett drawbacks to be repaid on due exportation: as alſo the bounties payable out of cuſtoms. With an index to the whole; in which all the laws now in force relating to the cuſtoms, to the 29th of George* II. *incluſive, are abridged and digeſted under proper heads alphabetically. Continued by appendix to the end of the ſeſſion of the 30th of Geo.* II. *By* Henry Saxby, *of the Cuſtomhouſe, London.* 8vo. 7s. 6d. Nourſe.

AS commercial ſubjects cannot but be ſuppoſed peculiarly intereſting to a trading nation, ſo this elaborate performance muſt be highly acceptable to the Britiſh merchant; as it aſcertains the impoſitions on our ſeveral exports and imports, in the moſt comprehenſive manner an undertaking ſo diffuſe in its nature, ſeems to admit of; and ſerves to ſhew at the ſame time, the various articles of our extenſive traffic to all parts of the habitable world, and the great emolument thereby accruing to the government.

This work (conſiſting chiefly of tables, enumerating the commodities imported or exported, their duties, drawbacks, &c.) is not of a nature to admit of either abridgment or extract; ſo that the moſt we can do will be to preſent the mercantile Reader

with such a view of the general heads into which it is divided, as may enable the negotiator, and collector of customs, to form a competent idea of the method used in executing a design requiring so much assiduity and precision.

Chap. I.

'The several branches of customs, subsidies, &c. on goods 'imported, exported, or brought coastwise, described and ex- 'plained under their respective heads and titles.

'Of the use of the marginal letters inserted in the rates; with 'the table thereof, list of branches, and an explanation of the 'whole by examples.

Chap. II.

'The rates of merchandize inwards, by 12 Car. II. cap. 4. 'and 11 Geo. I. cap. 7. or any subsequent acts, with the a- 'mounts of the nett duties and drawbacks on each article or 'species.

'The subsidy of tonnage on wines imported into London, 'and other parts of Great Britain, with the nett duties payable 'in the various circumstances of importation, and the London 'duty to be paid on wines brought from the out-ports, together 'with the respective drawbacks.

'The rates of merchandize outwards, as by 12 Car. II. 'cap. 4. with the nett duties payable on each species; the sub- 'sidy on woollen-cloths exported; and the subsidy of sixpence 'in the pound to be paid on dying goods exported, &c.

'The total nett duties on goods brought coastwise, and 'drawbacks on exportation.

'The rules, orders, directions, &c. for regulating as well 'the merchants as the officers, in making due entries, &c. re- 'ferred to by 12 Car. II. and 11 Geo. I.

Chap. III.

'Instructions for computation of the several branches of cus- 'toms, &c. in their various circumstances, with examples.

'The several allowances and bounties payable out of customs, 'with the bounties and drawbacks on British excisable goods 'exported, and the premium on naval-stores.

Chap. IV.

'The several ports of Great Britain, with their members 'and creeks.

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'The names of the lawful keys and wharfs, &c. in the port 'of London.

'Fees payable to the officers of the customs of the port of 'London.

'The grant to the city of London of scavage, package, &c.

'The tables of scavage, package, ballage, portage.

Chap. V.

'The index, containing abstracts of all the laws now in force 'relating to the customs.

'The several laws of customs (now in force) granted only 'for times limited, with their respective continuations.

The Appendix.

'Containing such alterations and additions as have been 'made in regard to the customs, by the 30th of Geo. II.

The introduction prefixed gives us to understand, 'that what 'first gave birth to the present work, was a zeal to vindicate 'the authority and character of Mr. Crouch, from the wrong 'done him by a book, under the title of the fifth edition of his 'Complete View, &c. published by a bookseller, which was so 'negligently, as well as ignorantly executed, that it was no 'sooner seen than it was by the common voice condemned.'— 'The form and plan of this work is the same as was taken by 'Mr. Crouch, for the invention of which we are indebted to 'the ingenuity of Mr. Edgar, Inspector of the customs in Scot- 'land; for he, observing the great difficulty which occurred in 'endeavouring to acquire any tolerable notion of the system of 'the customs, while the branches (which in his time were to 'the number of twenty-six) were no where to be met with, 'but as they were dispersed in the statute-books, first arranged 'them (in his *Vectigalium Systema*) and under their respective 'heads has given a short description of the particular construc- 'tion of each branch, with the regulations respecting its ma- 'nagement; and the relation between these branches and the 'various species of goods and merchandize in the book of rates, 'is conducted by a short table of references, the usefulness and 'elegance of which cannot be enough valued and admired.'

It is almost superfluous to mention, that, after acknowleging whence he derived the plan of his work, Mr. Saxby, like most other Compilers and Calculators, aims at prepossessing his Readers in his favour, by specifying the omissions and errors of his predecessors. The rectifying the defects of Mess. Edgar, Carkess,

and Crouch, with the additional improvements, are reaſonably urged in recommendation of this book; and, the truth of the Author's pretenſions being granted, we make no doubt that the work will duly anſwer every end propoſed by its publication.

A Compendium of the Practice of Phyſic. By Lawrence Heiſter, *Senior Profeſſor of Phyſic and Surgery in the Univerſity of Helmſtadt, Firſt Phyſician, &c. to the Duke of Brunſwick, Member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences, and Fellow of the Royal Societies of London and Berlin. Tranſlated from the original Latin, by* Edmund Barker, *M. D.* 8vo. 6 s. Payne.

CONSIDERING the length of time that has intervened ſince the firſt appearance of this Compendium, and the deſerved reputation its Author had acquired by his chirurgical productions, it may, not unreaſonably, be preſumed, that moſt medical Readers have already formed their ſentiments concerning the original. Hence the uſefulneſs of the tranſlation is all that properly falls under our cognizance.

The Tranſlator thus apologizes for his undertaking. 'The 'learned languages are now ſo well underſtood, particularly by 'the practitioners of phyſic, that it may ſeem ſtrange a tranſla-'tion of the following treatiſe ſhould have been thought neceſ-'ſary. But as there are many perſons in the *inferior* branches 'of that profeſſion, in the country eſpecially, who, though 'very uſeful in their ſtations, have not had opportunities of 'making themſelves ſufficiently acquainted with the Latin 'tongue, to read the original of this uſeful work with eaſe; to 'ſuch, it is hoped, the publication of it in our own language 'may be of advantage.'

But, admitting all the importance of theſe *inferior* practitioners, and the fitneſs of their being better informed, a queſtion (and that not very inſignificant) will ariſe, Whether this work is adequate to the purpoſe of inſtruction? Can it be expected, that the perſons for whoſe advantage this tranſlation is profeſſedly intended, will be much benefitted by the preliminary confutation of the Stahlian doctrines, which they moſt probably never before heard of? May not Dr. Heiſter's peculiar arrangement 'of diſeaſes which bear ſome affinity to other like 'ſpecies (as herbs in botany) under the ſame claſs,' frequently perplex by unneceſſary repetitions? Or what edification can it be ſuppoſed theſe leſs-learned adminiſtrators of medicine will de-

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rive from being told, that the antecedent cauſe of continual fevers is, 'ſome alcaline, bilious, or ſulphureous acrimony' in the blood; that 'a *calculus*, or ſtone in the kidney and bladder, 'generally proceeds from a congeſtion and ſtagnation of the 'thicker blood in the kidneys, cauſing a calculus, firſt of the 'kidneys, and afterwards of the bladder;' and that 'the ſcia-'tica takes riſe from a congeſtion of ſuperfluous blood about the 'anus.'—Surely, jargon, ſuch as this, (and abundant ſpecimens of the ſame ſort might be given) is more likely to confound the wiſdom of the wiſe, than to enlighten the underſtandings of the ignorant.

It will, perhaps, be objected, that however controvertible ſome of Dr. Heiſter's *theoretical* opinions may be, many uſeful *practical* directions are nevertheleſs to be collected from him. But even in this reſpect there is more than a little reaſon to apprehend, that the unwary will not only be frequently diſappointed, but alſo that they may be ſometimes liable to be miſled. The exuberance and indiſtinction of our Author's Materia Medica will moſt probably ſerve to confound the undiſcerning practitioner; and the compoſitions here referred to and recommended, are in general either little known *, or deſervedly fallen into contempt, in Great Britain, where phyſic has of late years put on a neater and more ſimple garb.

To give only a few inſtances of the vagueneſs of our Author's preſcriptions, in page 98, after a premonition againſt ſtrong purges, he tells us, indiſcriminately, that, 'in the beginning of 'the ſmall-pox, calomel with rhubarb, jalap, or decoction of 'tamarinds, may be preſcribed.'—In page 99, he ſeems, as if in *imitation* of our old countryman *John* of *Gaddeſden* †, to have conſulted no leſs the *pocket* than the *health* of the patient: 'where there are great oppreſſions, and ſtraitneſs, and deliriums 'or inflammations, to each doſe of theſe powders, [abſorbent 'with a little nitre] two, three, or four grains of camphire may 'be added, and for the *Rich*, the *Bezoar ſtone*.'—'In exanthe-'matous fevers (p. 102) ſuch as petechial, ſpotted fever, purples, 'and alſo the ſmall-pox, and meaſles; if the eruption does not 'proceed properly,' he adviſes, 'diaphoretic emulſions (an eme-'tic of ipecacuanha having been premiſed) made of ſeeds of co-'lumbines, bleſſed thiſtle, and navew gentle, *becauſe theſe ſeeds* '*have an expelling or alexipharmic power*.'—In treating of hypocondriacal diſorders (p. 218) after having experienced the inef-

* Dr. Barker profeſſes to have annexed the forms of theſe compoſitions, but this promiſe is very indifferently performed.

† John of Gaddeſden appears to have been one of the royal phyſicians in the time of Edward II.

ficacy of ſeveral far more active medicines, he recommends 'the 'eſſence of yarrow, or of true white maidenhair, and the de-'coction or infuſion of theſe, *but with caution.*'—For the cure of the rickets *tepid* bathing is directed, without the leaſt intimation of that old approved remedy, *cold* bathing.—Are not theſe enough to ſhew, the unfitneſs of putting this work into the hands of the *inferior* craftſmen in phyſic?

Dr. Heiſter's declared intention in the publication was 'to 'confute the ſlanders of his enemies, who had endeavoured to 'decry his practice, by repreſenting him as a mere ſurgeon; 'with no knowlege of internal diſeaſes;' how well it might anſwer his purpoſe in Germany, we do not pretend to determine; but among the modern profeſſors of medicine, in this country, it is believed, that the Doctor will continue to be eſteemed chiefly for his chirurgical performances.

Letters on Theron and Aſpaſia. Addreſſed to the Author. 12mo. 2 vols. 5s. Edinburgh.

THESE Letters contain reflections on popular and apoſtolical Chriſtianity, on Myſteries, Reaſon, Grace, Charity, and ſeveral other ſubjects, connected with the doctrines of Juſtification and Acceptance with God. The Author writes in a looſe inaccurate manner; labours more to refute the opinions of others, than to ſupport his own; treats with a very unbecoming freedom thoſe who differ from him; and advances little, as far as we can judge, that can give any ſatisfaction to a rational and candid Enquirer.

We ſhall not trouble our Readers with a particular account of what is contained in theſe Letters; a few extracts will be ſufficient. In his firſt Letter, which ſerves as a general introduction to the reſt, ſpeaking of the many artifices that have been deviſed by ſome, and unwarily adopted and propagated by others, to render of none effect the Goſpel of our Salvation, he expreſſes himſelf in the following manner:

'Every Doctrine which teaches us to do or endeavour any 'thing toward our acceptance with God, ſtands oppoſed to the 'doctrine of the Apoſtles; which, inſtead of directing us what 'to do, ſets before us all that the moſt diſquieted conſcience 'can require, in order to acceptance with God, as already done 'and finiſhed by Jeſus Chriſt. What Chriſt hath done, is that 'which pleaſes God; what he hath done, is that which quiets 'the

'the guilty conſcience of man as ſoon as he knows it: ſo that 'whenever he hears of it, he has no occaſion for any other 'queſtion but this, is it true or not? If he finds it true, he is 'happy; if not, he can reap no comfort by it. If then we 'ſlight the comfort ariſing from the bare perſuaſion of this, it 'muſt be owing, at bottom, to our ſlighting this bare truth, 'to our ſlighting the bare work of Chriſt, and our conſidering 'it as too narrow a foundation whereon to reſt the whole 'weight of our acceptance with God. Whereas all Chriſtians 'of the ſame ſtamp with Paul, can never ſee it in too bare a 'light, and are ready to ſay, far be it! that we ſhould glory, 'ſave in the Croſs, where that work was finiſhed.

'On the other hand, if the Sinner finds his firſt glympſe of 'comfort, his firſt ray of hope, from any other ſource; if he 'finds any good motions already begun in his heart, and finds 'reaſon to conſider God as ſeconding and forwarding ſuch mo-'tions; then his friendly correſpondence with God is already 'begun: for he finds he has already begun to move in a courſe 'wherein he is favoured and aſſiſted by God. And it may be 'well affirmed, that by whatever means his friendly correſ-'pondence with God is begun, much more may it be carried 'on and perfected by the ſame or the like means. For as he 'improves in goodneſs, he has ſtill more reaſon to look for freſh 'ſupplies of aſſiſtance from God, than in his firſt feeble and 'doubtful attempts. Even as all who glory only in the Croſs, 'and have got their firſt taſte of peace with God, from the bare 'work finiſhed there, may well reaſon in this manner, *Much 'more than being now juſtified by his blood, we ſhall be ſaved from 'wrath through him.*

'Whatever doctrine then teaches us to think, that our 'friendly correſpondence or acceptance with God is begun by 'our own good endeavours, ſeconded by the divine aid, or even 'firſt prompted by the divine influence, leads us to look for ac-'ceptance with God by our own righteouſneſs: for whatever I 'do, however aſſiſted or prompted, is ſtill my own work; 'otherwiſe the moſt common actions of life could not be called 'our own, ſeeing in all theſe we muſt ſtill acknowlege our de-'pendence on God, in whom we live, move, and have our 'being. Agreeably to what is now ſaid, we may find Philoſo-'phers and Phariſees, both ancient and modern, in the height 'of their ſelf-applauſe, acknowleging divine aſſiſtance, and 'ready to agree in uſing language like this, God, *I thank thee 'for my excellency above other men.*

'We muſt begin our religion then as we would end it. Our 'acceptance with God, firſt and laſt, muſt reſt entirely on the

'work finiſhed by Jeſus Chriſt on the Croſs; or we muſt be-
'take ourſelves to what many call the Religion of Nature, and
'what God warrants us to call the Religion of Pride, as being
'no leſs oppoſite to the law of nature, than to the Goſpel.'

As to the Author of Theron and Aſpaſio, our Letter-Writer tells us, that his faith does not bear the apoſtolic ſtamp; he allows, however, that the grand peculiarity, the capital point, of the Chriſtian religion, makes a more ſtriking and diſtinguiſhed figure in his writings, than in thoſe of any of the popular miniſters that he has ſeen, and is not without hopes, he ſays, that Mr. Hervey's faith, on a proper trial, may work itſelf clear of the ingredients that ſink its value.

But tho' our Author combats Mr. Hervey's notion of Faith, yet his principal quarrel is with the popular preachers, who, he ſays, have done more hurt to the ſouls of men, than all the infidel writers put together. Indeed the whole of his performance is little elſe than one continued attack upon them, ſometimes in the way of open and direct abuſe, at others in that of ludicrous ſcoffing, often in the ſpirit of malignant ſatire, but never in the ſpirit of Chriſtianity.

If any one chuſes to go to hell by a devout path, rather than by any other, or if any profane perſon deſires to be converted, let him take pains, our Author ſays, to enter into the ſpirit of Dr. Doddridge's *Riſe and Progreſs of Religion in the Soul*, and it will be eaſy to ſhew, from the New Teſtament, that he thereby becomes two-fold more the child of hell than he was before.

'Many popular Preachers,' ſays he, 'have conſidered themſelves as a kind of Factors, or rather Ambaſſadors, for God, commiſſioned and impowered by him to make *offers* of Chriſt, and all his benefits, unto men, upon certain terms, and to aſſure them of the benefits on their complying with the terms. Accordingly they have not been negligent in ſetting forth the dignity of their character in this view, and they have plumed themſelves not a little upon the offer they had to make, making frequent repetition of this their offer with great parade. But any one who reads the New Teſtament with tolerable attention, may ſee that there is as little foundation for any ſuch offer, as there is for beſtowing the title of God's Ambaſſador on any man ſince the days of the Apoſtles. The Apoſtles were witneſſes for God to men, but they never bargained for God with men, however much ſome ſcriptural metaphors have been ſtrained for that purpoſe. They never taught men to put forth any act, or to make one ſtep of advance toward God, on the proſpect that God would condeſcend and come down the reſt of the infinite diſtance to meet them.

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'This was neither ſuitable to their office, nor to the honour of 'that God whoſe character they drew.—The Preachers, whoſe 'honour is concerned in what they call the Goſpel-offer, com- 'monly take hold of the promiſes of the Goſpel, which it is 'eaſy to ſhew are made only to believers, and by the dint of 'their authority, with the help of a little art, extend them to 'all their hearers without diſtinction. And to obviate the diffi- 'culty, how ſhall I know that the promiſe is to me, or that 'Chriſt died for me? they addreſs their hearers in this manner. "We are the Ambaſſadors of God, to us the word of recon- "ciliation is committed; we are ſent and commiſſioned to "bring Chriſt near to ſinners, and ſinners near to Chriſt; we "make an offer of Chriſt and all his benefits to you, and you, "and you; in the name of the great God we declare, that the "promiſe is to thee, and thee, O man, woman, whoſoever "thou art; in his name we call you this moment to ſtretch "forth the withered hand, and the withered heart, and take "hold on Chriſt, ſaying, *He is mine, and I am his.*" 'I give 'here only a ſhort ſpecimen of what is to be found at large in- 'terwoven in almoſt all their ſermons; and I am ſenſible they 'would as ſoon allow any article of the Chriſtian doctrine to be 'attacked, as ſuffer their offer to be called in queſtion. We 'may find them buſy moving queſtions, and warmly diſputing 'with one another, about the nature and extent of Chriſt's 'death, trying which of them ſhall lay the moſt convenient 'foundation for their univerſal offer, and the particular appli- 'cation, or appropriation, connected with it; but I dare ven- 'ture to affirm, that this ſame offer will be the laſt thing that 'any of them will entertain a doubt about.'

This is a ſpecimen of our Author's manner of treating the popular Preachers; if any of our Readers are pleaſed with it, we can aſſure them, for their further ſatisfaction, that they will find a great deal more to the ſame purpoſe, in the *Letters on Theron and Aſpaſio.*

The General Hiſtory and State of Europe, Part IV. *from the Beginning of the Sixteenth Century, to the Death of the Emperor Charles* V. *in* 1556. *Tranſlated from the Geneva Edition of M.* de Voltaire. 8vo. 2s. 6d. ſewed. Nourſe.

THE nearer the thread of this agreeable Hiſtory approaches our own times, the more naturally does it intereſt us in the events it recites. In the peruſal of Hiſtory, an intelligent

telligent Reader cannot avoid remarking one great disadvantage to which it is subject; and make due allowances accordingly: the more remote the period, of which the transactions are registered, like objects seen at too great a distance, the more obscure those transactions appear. An Historian can only obtain from the painful search and comparison of a few old Authors, *of uncertain veracity*, superficial and unconnected sketches of facts, without the leading causes, (often very trivial, and, therefore, overlooked) by which they were brought to pass; it is the office then of the Compiler to form a necessary connexion, and place them in an agreeable view. By this we perceive the opportunity *partial* Writers have of suiting their materials to serve the cause they adopt, and the absolute necessity of their being men of unbiassed integrity.

As History advances, the evidences of facts become more in number, as well as by that means more certain; this we owe to the art of printing. Here then we seem to have some reason to hope for truth, (the integrity of the Writer still supposed) and such, we apprehend, are the times to which the Annals now before us relate. But to close the reflection, when history comes down to our day, the disadvantage attending the first periods revives, however paradoxical it may appear; yet revives from different causes: the evidences, it is true, are sufficiently numerous, but—they are mostly corrupted; and it is not always safe to cross-examine them, and determine from thence, for *that* must be *truth* which the uppermost party is pleased to allow *as such*.

This fourth part* of the History of Europe, ascribed to Mr. Voltaire, is introduced with a View of the State of the polite Arts, at the period he now treats of; and Italy is represented as the *only* place in which the sciences gained any ground. The improvements there made on the revival of the Arts, are contrasted with the ancient state of them in Greece, greatly to the advantage of the former; in so warm a manner, that if freed from the charge of partiality, can be no otherwise accounted for than by attributing it to the poetic imagination of the reputed Author. Let us, however see the reason given for this superiority of knowlege in Italy; it stands thus. 'The religi-
'ous disputes in which the public were engaged in Germany,
'in the North, in France, and in England, retarded, instead
'of forwarding the progress of reason. It was impossible for
'people that were blind, and fought like madmen, to find out
'the right road to truth. These quarrels were only one dis-

* Accounts of the three foregoing Parts may be seen, Vol. X. page 197, and Vol. XII. p. 462.

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'temper more, added to the human mind. The polite arts 'continued to flouriſh in Italy, becauſe the peſt of religious 'controverſy had not penetrated into that country; and it ſo 'happened, that while they were cutting one another's throats 'in Germany, in France, and in England, for things they did 'not underſtand, Italy, completely at reſt, ever ſince the a-'mazing event of the plundering of Rome by the army of 'Charles V. applied herſelf more than ever to the improvement 'of the polite arts.' But may we not aſk, if religious controverſy had penetrated into Italy, would it not have argued a dawning of reaſon upon them; and that their underſtandings began to *penetrate* into the eccleſiaſtical impoſitions under which they then did, and ſtill do, labour? While we, on the contrary, have emerged from that cloud of ſuperſtitious ignorance, which, by cramping the powers of the human mind, as certainly hinder all exertion toward the improvement of arts.

'Notwithſtanding the foregoing allegations of our Author, he is not remiſs in his cenſures on the Romiſh Clergy; for he ſpeaks in very free terms of the prodigality and viciouſneſs of the Popes and Cardinals. 'The whole torrent of Proteſtant and Catholic 'Writers,' ſays he, 'make loud complaints againſt the looſe 'morals of thoſe times. They tell us, that the Biſhops, the 'inferior Clergy, and the Monks, led moſt indolent lives; that 'nothing was more common than for Prieſts to bring up their 'children publicly, after the example of Alexander VI. We 'have ſtill the will of Croui, Biſhop of Cambray in thoſe days, 'wherein he leaves ſeveral legacies to his children, and reſerves 'a ſum for the *baſtards, which he ſtill hopes that God will be ſo 'gracious as to give him, in caſe he recovers from this illneſs.* 'Theſe are the very words of the will. Pope Pius II. had 'long before obſerved, *that the Clergy were forbid to marry for 'very ſtrong reaſons; but that there were much ſtronger reaſons 'to allow them to marry.* Proteſtant Writers have carefully col-'lected proofs, to ſhew, that in ſeveral parts of Germany, the 'people always obliged the Secular Clergy to have Concubines, 'to the end that married women might be leſs expoſed to dan-'ger.' He introduces many more inſtances of their abuſes, particularly their ſhameful trade of Indulgencies and Abſolutions for all crimes, not excepting murder, and beaſtiality; each of which had its appointed rate, as regular as our cuſtoms.

At this time many amputations were made from that almoſt univerſal ſovereignty enjoyed by the Roman Pontiff over the Chriſtian Church; great part of this Hiſtory therefore is employed in the accounts of Luther and Calvin, their diviſions from the Church of Rome, and the cauſes which brought on thoſe of the ſeveral Proteſtant States. We ſhall give, as a ſpecimen both of

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our Author and his Tranſlator, the XIIIth chapter compleat, in which he relates the memorable affair

Of CALVIN and SERVETUS.

'MIchael Servetus, of Villanueva in Arragon, was a learned Phyſician, who deſerved the public reſpect and applauſe, for having, long before Hervey, diſcovered the circulation of the blood: but he neglected an uſeful profeſſion for dangerous ſtudies. He took it into his head to write about the prefiguration of Chriſt in the verb, the hypoſtatic union, the divine viſion, the ſubſtance of angels, and the ſuperior manducation: particularly he adopted the ancient dogmas of Euſebius and Arius, which having been predominant in the Eaſt, were embraced in the ſixteenth century by Lelio Socini, and afterwards by great numbers in Poland, England, and Holland.

'He was ſo frank and open, that from Vienne in Dauphiné, where he reſided ſome time, he wrote to Calvin concerning the Trinity. At firſt they diſputed by letters; from diſputing Calvin proceeded to perſonal abuſe, and from perſonal abuſe to theological hatred, of all others the moſt implacable. Servetus was printing a work of his own in private; Calvin having by ſome treachery or other procured the ſheets, as they came from the preſs, ſent them to Lyons together with Servetus's letters; an action alone ſufficient to ſtigmatize him for ever; for the laws of ſociety are ſurely more ſacred than the injunctions of all the ſynods in the world. He employed one of his emiſſaries to accuſe Servetus. Strange conduct for an apoſtle! Servetus, ſenſible of the ſeverity of the laws of France againſt Reformers, ſaved himſelf by flight, while they were carrying on the proſecution againſt him. Unfortunately he paſſed through Geneva; Calvin apprized of it, informs againſt him, and gets him ſeized. But as at Geneva there is a law, which ought to be imitated in all governments whatever, that the accuſer ſhall be confined as well as the accuſed, Calvin made one of his diſciples, who was at the ſame time his domeſtic, act the informer.

'When his enemy was in jail, he went and inſulted him in the moſt contumelious language, ſuch as is generally uſed by cowards, after they have got the upper hand. At length, by ſoliciting the judges, by uſing the credit of thoſe who were under his direction, by declaring loudly, and by making others declare, that God demanded the execution of Michael Servetus, he cauſed him to be burnt alive, and triumphed at his puniſhment; he, who if he had ſet foot in France, would

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'have been burnt himſelf! he who had raiſed ſo loud an outcry 'againſt perſecutions!

'But what increaſes our indignation and pity, is, that Ser- 'vetus in the works which he publiſhed himſelf, acknowleges 'in plain terms the eternal divinity of Chriſt: Calvin to de- 'ſtroy this unfortunate man, produced ſome of his private let- 'ters to his friends, written long before that time, in free 'terms.

'This deplorable cataſtrophe did not happen till 1555, 'twenty years after Geneva had paſſed ſentence upon the Ro- 'miſh religion: but my reaſon for placing it here, is to give 'the Reader a better idea of the character of Calvin, who be- 'came the Apoſtle of Geneva, and of the French reformed. 'One would think that they are now endeavouring to appeaſe 'the manes of Servetus. Many learned Paſtors, and even 'great Philoſophers, of the Proteſtant communion, have em- 'braced his and Socinus's ſentiments. Nay, they have gone 'further: their religion is the adoration of one God, by the 'mediation of Chriſt. But, for our part, we only relate facts 'and opinions, without entering into any controverſy, without 'diſputing againſt any body, paying reſpect where it is due, 'and intirely attached to hiſtorical fidelity.

'The laſt ſtroke in Calvin's character may be taken from a 'letter in his hand-writing, which is ſtill preſerved in the caſtle 'of Baſtie-Roland near Montelimar: it is directed to the Mar- 'quis of Poët, Lord Chamberlain to the King of Navarre, and 'dated the 30th of September 1561.

"May honour, glory, and riches be the reward of your "trouble: above all be ſure you don't fail to clear the country "of thoſe pitiful zealots, who are exciting the people to revolt "againſt us. Such monſters as thoſe ought to be ſtrangled, "the way I dealt with Michael Servetus the Spaniard."

'The generality of mankind have ſome virtues to counter- 'balance their vices. Calvin with all his cruelty was moſt diſ- 'intereſted; his whole fortune at his death amounted to no 'more than an hundred and twenty crowns. Indefatigable ap- 'plication ſhortned his days, but gained him a high degree of 'credit, and has rendered his name immortal.

'There are ſome of Luther's letters, which breathe as little 'peace or charity, as thoſe of Calvin. The Catholics cannot 'comprehend how the Proteſtants ſhould acknowlege ſuch 'Apoſtles: the Proteſtants make anſwer, that they do not in- 'voke thoſe as Saints, who contributed to eſtabliſh their re- 'formation; that they are neither Lutherans, nor Zwinglians,

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'nor Calviniſts; that they think they follow the doctrine of 'the primitive church; that they are far from canonizing the 'paſſions of Luther and Calvin; and that the diſagreeable cha-'racter of thoſe men, is no more reaſon for prejudicing the 'Reformed againſt their opinions, than the manners of Alex-'ander VI, and Leo X, and the perſecutions for religion, are 'an objection againſt the church of Rome with a ſenſible Ca-'tholic.

'This is a wiſe anſwer; and indeed the ſpirit of moderation 'ſeems to have ſucceeded the inveterate animoſity of both par-'ties. If the ſame ſanguinary diſpoſition had continued to pre-'ſide over religion, Europe would have been by this time one 'great church-yard. At length the ſpirit of philoſophy has 'blunted the edge of their ſwords. But what neceſſity was 'there for a madneſs of two hundred years, to arrive at a few 'days happineſs?

'Theſe diſputes being decided by the ſword, put the Laity 'in poſſeſſion of great part of the Church lands, but did not 'enrich the Theologians, who promoted the wars. They had 'the fate of thoſe who found a charge, without ſharing the 'ſpoils. The Paſtors of the Proteſtant Churches had declaim-'ed ſo vehemently againſt the riches of the Clergy, that it 'would have been very unbecoming of them to take up with 'what they condemned; therefore moſt States laid hold of this 'circumſtance to prevent their being opulent. The Calviniſti-'cal and Lutheran Clergy have had ſuch incomes allowed them, 'as are inconſiſtent with luxury. The abbey lands in moſt coun-'tries have been ſeized on by the Government, and applied to 'the ſupport of hoſpitals. Lubec and Oſnabrug are the only 'rich Proteſtant Biſhoprics in Germany, whoſe revenues have 'not been ſecularized. When we come to enquire further in-'to the conſequences of this revolution, we ſhall ſee the whim-'ſical but pacific agreement, whereby the treaty of Weſtpha-'lia has rendered this biſhopric of Oſnabrug alternately Catho-'lic and Lutheran. In England the Reformation was more fa-'vourable to the Clergy than it has been in Germany, in Swiſ-'ſerland, and in the Low Countries to the Lutherans and Cal-'viniſts. The Engliſh Biſhoprics are all conſiderable; and the 'benefices are ſuch as a man may genteelly live upon. The 'country Clergy are more at their eaſe than in France; the 'Government and the Laity have profited by the diſſolution of 'the abbies only. There are entire pariſhes in London, here-'tofore occupied by a ſingle Convent, and now filled with a 'multitude of families. In general every nation that has con-'verted the religious houſes to the public uſe, hath gained 'thereby, humanly ſpeaking, and no body has been injured. 'For, indeed, nothing is taken from a Society which no long-

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'er exiſts. No body was hurt but the tranſient poſſeſſors who 'were ejected; and theſe have left no deſcendants that can com- 'plain. It is but the injuſtice of a day, which has been pro- 'ductive of the bleſſings of many ages.

'Yet in the midſt of this confuſion, and before any ſort of 'order could be eſtabliſhed, the two parties, the Catholics and 'Lutherans, were throwing Germany into a combuſtion. The 'Religion called Evangelical, had been eſtabliſhed already in '1555, in twenty-four Imperial cities, and in eighteen ſmall 'provinces of the Empire. The Lutherans would fain reduce 'the power of Charles V, and he wanted to deſtroy them. 'Leagues were formed; and battles were fought: but we muſt 'proceed with the revolutions in matters of Religion, and ſee 'in what manner the Church of England was eſtabliſhed, and 'how the Church of France was rent and divided.'

In the courſe of his conſiderations on Religion, he occaſionally introduces ſoftening expreſſions with reſpect to the Papiſts, as well as ſlighting ones of the Reformers. The Scots, he ſays, would have done much better had they applied themſelves to the improvement of their barren country, or endeavoured to eſtabliſh a fiſhery on their coaſts, for their neceſſary ſubſiſtence; than to imbrue that wretched kingdom in blood for the ſake of foreign opinions. But Mr. Voltaire ſhould conſider how neceſſary it was for the Scots to free themſelves from their eccleſiaſtical bondage, and to ſecure their property in the fiſh before they attempted catching it; their country, barren as it was to them, flowed with Milk and Honey ſufficient for their Clergy; and it would have been ſtupid in them to trouble themſelves about improvements in trade, which, as the church in thoſe days ſwallowed up every thing, would but have advanced the luxury of their *Spiritual Lords.*

A ſhort view of the Portugueſe and Spaniſh diſcoveries in America; and the amazing barbarities that followed, upon the unjuſtifiable uſurpation of the Indian territories, conclude the whole; the Author quotes an aſſertion from one of their own Clergy, who, ſtrange as it may ſeem, appears to have poſſeſſed ſome feelings of humanity! "I have been preſent," ſays he, "in the iſle of S. Domingo, and in Jamaica, when they have "covered the country with gibbets, and hanged thoſe unhappy "wretches thirteen in a row, in honour, as they ſaid, of the "thirteen Apoſtles; I have ſeen them give the infants to be "devoured by their dogs."

By ſuch means have extenſive countries been depopulated: we ſhudder at it, and well we may; but now the *natural* inhabitants are chiefly deſtroyed, let us reflect what the *unnatural* inhabitants are at preſent doing there? This the concluding words of

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our Author will ſuggeſt to us. 'One unhappy effect has fol-
'lowed from all theſe diſcoveries and tranſplantations; our trad-
'ing nations endeavour to deſtroy each other in America, and
'in Aſia, ſo often as a war breaks out between them in Europe.
'They have alternately ruined their infant colonies. The de-
'ſign of the firſt voyages was to unite all nations; of thoſe un-
'dertaken lately, to exterminate one another at the furtheſt ex-
'tremity of the earth.

'It is a very great problem, whether Europe has benefitted
'by the diſcovery of America. There is no doubt but the Spa-
'niards at firſt drew immenſe riches from thence; but their
'country has been depopulated; and this treaſure being ſhared
'at length among other nations, the ancient equality is again
'reſtored. The price of proviſions has every where increaſed.
'So that in reality no body has been a gainer. The queſtion
'therefore is, whether Cochineal and the Bark are of ſuch con-
'ſiderable value, as to compenſate the loſs of ſo many thouſands
'of men.'

The Hiſtory of the Royal Society of London, for improving of natural Knowlege, from its firſt Riſe, &c. By Thomas Birch, D. D. Secretary to the Royal Society. Vols. III. and IV. 4th. 1l. 10s. Millar.

THE two firſt volumes of this laborious undertaking, were duly noticed in our Review, vol. XIV. page 417. where we ſaw the birth and infancy of this grand aſſociation for the culture of Science, and the advancement of uſeful Arts. The detail is continued in theſe volumes, in a very minute manner, of every private occurrence relating to the Society; few of which will afford entertainment to common Readers: let us juſt mention the ſubjects of ſome papers that appear to be of importance; without intending, however, by that expreſſion, to caſt any reflection upon the others.

In vol. III. page 6, an account is given of ſome attempts towards the recovery of drowned animals; a ſubject, ſurely worthy the attention of mankind; the Finlanders are quoted as recovering perſons who have been drowned two or three days: their method is deſcribed to be, ſubjecting the body to irritating motions in a warm ſtove; with other fomentations; till the water is ejected, and the loſt circulation of the animal juices reſtored:

reſtored: but they remark, concerning the perſons thus recovered, that they almoſt always loſe their vivacity, and that their memory is much impaired.

Page 247, are ſome manuſcripts of Mr. Newton, (afterwards the great Sir Iſaac) relating to his theory of Light and Colours.

Page 394, Debates concerning a propoſed method for ſounding depths at ſea.

Page 401, Mention is made of an experiment of ſhooting a bullet perpendicularly upward, which is aſſerted always to have fallen weſtward of the place whence it was ſhot.

Page 441, The method is related by which the coal-miners free their pits from the Vapours and Damps ſo deſtructive to them; which is, by throwing down every morning burning coals, to fire and conſume the ſaid damps: after which the people venture into the pits.

Vol. IV. page 120, Notice is taken of the great regard the Chineſe Phyſicians have to the motion of the Pulſe in divers parts of the body; as likewiſe Galen's attention to the ſame.

Page 122, Part of a letter from Mr. Caſwel to Mr. Flamſtead was read, giving an account of his having taken the Fall of the river Severn, which was found to be three yards, three inches, in five miles. The river is, indeed, ſwift, yet Mr. Caſwel was of opinion the meaſure of the Fall was too great, tho' it was taken with a quadrant, and, he thought, very carefully.

Pages 514 and 519, are two Letters from Dr. Wallis, endeavouring to aſſign the cauſes of Monſoons or Trade-Winds.

Theſe volumes bring the proceedings of the Royal Society, no farther down than to the year 1687, and, beſides giving an account of their affairs in a chronological ſeries, the deaths of the Members are regiſtered as they occur, with a ſhort account of their lives ſubjoined. But if in the remaining volumes, every trivial thing is to be ſo exactly recorded as they are in theſe, the Doctor may not only be ſaid to have *cut*, but to have *minced* himſelf out a great quantity of employment; and will put his Readers likewiſe to the trouble of making that ſelection in the peruſal, which moſt of them will think ought to be made for them, in the compoſition.

Concluſion of the Eccleſiaſtical Hiſtory of England. By Ferdinando Warner, *L. L. D. Vol.* II. See Review, vol. XV, p. 564, and vol. XVI, p. 5—209—577.

INSTEAD of accompanying our Hiſtorian through the ſeveral reigns and revolutions which intervene betwixt the demiſe of Henry the VIIIth, and that happy ſettlement of all affairs in Church and State, upon the ſolid baſis of Liberty, which William the IIId had the glory of eſtabliſhing, we ſhall at preſent confine ourſelves to the reigns of Edward the VIth, and of Elizabeth.

Of the times of Edward the VIth, ſo much revered, and by ſome ſo much extolled beyond our own, the following account is given. 'The majority of the Biſhops were weak and ignorant men, who underſtood little of religion, and valued it leſs: 'but tho' they liked the old ſuperſtition beſt, becauſe it moſt encouraged ignorance, and ſecured their wealth and power, yet 'they intended to ſwim with the ſtream.—The Clergy of that 'time were, for the moſt part, ſuch as had been bred in monaſteries and religious houſes, and were put into benefices by 'the King, and the purchaſers of their lands, in order to eaſe 'themſelves of the penſions which were reſerved for the Monks 'and Friars till they were otherwiſe provided for.—The greateſt 'part of the benefices being ſo very ſmall, that three or four 'could ſcarce afford a maintenance for a ſingle Clergyman, they 'chiefly ſubſiſted upon Maſſes, Trentals (*a*), and other devices 'of ſuperſtition.—If therefore theſe perquiſites were taken from 'them, they would be deprived of the beſt part of their livelihood, and ſo were really engaged in intereſt againſt a Reformation: but as they were generally very ignorant, and could 'not oppoſe it with much argument or learning, ſo the ſame 'intereſt obliged them to comply with any thing that was eſtabliſhed, that they might not forfeit their whole ſubſiſtence.—And, as to the Laity, 'the greateſt part of the meaner ſort 'conſidered their Prieſts as a ſort of Conjurers or Magicians, 'who could ſave their ſouls by a trick or charm, as Quacks or 'Mountebanks pretend to cure diſeaſes; and the people had 'nothing to do, but to reſign themſelves wholly to them, and 'the buſineſs was done.—The reſt of the populace ſeems to 'have been compoſed of weak and corrupt Enthuſiaſts, who 'thought if they magnified Chriſt much, and relied on his me-

(*a*) The Trental, as our Author elſewhere explains it, 'was a method of delivering ſouls out of Purgatory, by ſaying thirty Maſſes 'a year.'

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'rits and interceſſion, they could not periſh, let their lives be 'what they would.'

Concerning the Parliament, Dr. Warner obſerves, that 'tho' 'many Members of both Houſes were inclined to the doctrines 'which their late Sovereign had eſtabliſhed, yet they were not 'averſe to any acts which would widen the breach ſtill farther 'between Rome and England. The affinity that was yet be-'tween them, in many points of doctrine and worſhip, might 'make a reconciliation at ſome time or other not impracticable; 'and ſuch a reconciliation would, in all probability, deprive 'them of the eſtates which they had got from the Church. As 'for others, whoſe buſineſs it was to make or improve their 'fortunes, and many ſuch there will be in every Parliament, 'they came determined, without doubt, to cloſe with any Re-'formation which the court intended.'—And that the Court had it in their power to ſerve ſuch friends, ſeems pretty obvious, ſince 'it was no unuſual thing, then, to confer eccleſiaſtical 'benefices, which had no cure of ſouls, on any favourite lay-'man.' The perſons, who favoured, or oppoſed, ſuperſtitious rites and ceremonies in religion, are thus repreſented. 'The 'common people, in town and country, and it has always been 'the ſame in every age and nation, were fond of all the pomp 'and ſolemnity of proceſſions, ſhews, and magnificent habits; 'and thought it a dull buſineſs to come to church, in order only 'to hear ſermons, and ſay their prayers in a ſerious way, 'without any thing to affect and pleaſe their ſenſes. But the 'grave and underſtanding men, who looked on all this glare 'and tinſel as of the ſame kind with the pagan ſhews and feſti-'vities for their Gods, and judged it contrary and pernicious 'to the plainneſs and ſimplicity of the Chriſtian inſtitution, 'laid out all their zeal to get it aboliſhed.'——

Other particulars, reſpecting this period, and deſcriptive of it, appear in the following paſſages. 'The Council book men-'tions the King's ſending a letter for the purging of his library 'at Weſtminſter; "to cull out all ſuperſtitious books, as "Maſſes, Legends, and ſuch like, and to deliver the garni-"ture of the books, being either gold or ſilver, to Sir Antho-"ny Aucher." 'Theſe books were many of them richly 'plated, and curiouſly emboſſed; which was, probably, the 'chief ſuperſtition that occaſioned this Courtier to deſire he 'might have the handling of them. The public Library, and 'the collections of many Colleges in the Univerſity of Oxford, 'underwent much the ſame fate.—The books marked with red 'were generally condemned for Popery at a venture; and where 'circles, and other mathematical figures appeared, they were 'looked upon as compoſitions of Magic, and either torn or

'burnt. This was a monſtrous inquiſition upon ſenſe and 'learning.

'There was an ignorant and conceited woman, called Joan 'of Kent, who having taken it into her head, that "Chriſt "was not incarnate of the Virgin, whoſe fleſh being ſinful he "could take none of it;"—'the good young King was moved 'to ſign a warrant for burning her as an heretic, but young as 'he was, he had more underſtanding in this particular, more 'humanity, and more of the Spirit of Chriſt's religion, than all 'his Privy-Council; and they could not prevail upon him to 'do it. He thought it a piece of cruelty, like that which the 'Reformers had condemned in Papiſts, to take away the lives 'of Chriſtians for their belief; eſpecially when it ſeemed to 'flow from ignorance, or a diſordered mind. Upon this the 'Archbiſhop—argued from the law of Moſes, by which blaſ-'phemers were to be ſtoned; and ſaid a great difference was to 'be made between errors in doctrine upon other points, and 'thoſe which immediately contradicted the Apoſtles Creed; 'that the latter were impieties againſt God, which a Prince, 'as God's deputy, ought to puniſh, in the ſame manner as the 'King's Council ought to puniſh offences againſt his perſon. 'Strange, that a man of Cranmer's underſtanding and good 'temper, could impoſe upon himſelf by ſuch ſophiſtry!— 'Stranger ſtill, that he could employ the engines of authority 'to burn a hair-brained illiterate woman, whom his good ſenſe, 'his charity, nay his humanity, were called upon to ſcreen 'from ſuch treatment, if it had proceeded from other people. 'His arguments rather ſilenced than ſatisfied the King, who, 'with tears in his eyes, ſigned the warrant; telling Cranmer, 'that as he reſigned himſelf to his Grace's judgment in that 'matter, ſo if the burning the woman for her opinions was a 'ſin, the ſin ſhould lie at his Grace's door, and he ſhould an-'ſwer for it to God.'——

'The ſecond Parliament of Edward was opened on the 1ſt of 'March, 1553.—The Commons, conſidering the great debt 'the King was left in by his father, the loſs he had put himſelf 'to in reforming the coin, and perceiving his Majeſty to be 'wholly ſet on the good of his ſubjects, granted him a ſubſidy 'for two years; in which they were followed by a grant from 'the Clergy in Convocation, of ſix ſhillings in the pound of all 'their benefices. In a few days after the diſſolution of this 'Parliament, a complaint having been made, that notwith-'ſtanding the great acceſſions of wealth in this reign, the Ex-'chequer was ſtill very low, a Viſitation was appointed to exa-'mine into the ſtate of the jewels, plate, and furniture of 'every cathedral and church throughout the kingdom, and to

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'compare the account with the inventories that had been taken 'in former Viſitations: in order to ſee not only how much of 'it had been embezzled, in order to a reſtitution; but how 'much might be ſpared for the King's uſe. The remainder of 'the linen, after a decent diſtribution for communion tables 'and ſurplices, was to be ſold indeed for the uſe of the poor: 'but the copes, the altar clothes, the jewels, and all the plate, 'beſides one or two chalices for every cathedral, church and 'chapel, were to be delivered to his Majeſty's Treaſurer of his 'Houſhold. It is impoſſible to ſay how much wealth was 'brought into the King's coffers, by this *devaſting* of all the 'churches of their gold and jewels, their ſilver croſſes and 'candleſticks, their chalices, and copes of gold and ſilver tiſſue. '—The young King has been blamed by ſome Hiſtorians, for 'ſetting his hand to a commiſſion for rifling the churches in 'this manner, as tho' his principles were not good.—But this 'is no proof of any ill diſpoſition in that Prince. He was, at 'the time of ſigning this commiſſion, in ſuch extreme bad 'health, that it is probable he ſigned every thing which his Mi-'niſters brought, without examining very nicely what it might 'import: and it was repreſented to him, as an inoffenſive ex-'pedient for repleniſhing his Exchequer, by calling in only the 'ſuperfluous plate, and other furniture, which lay in churches 'more for pomp than uſe.'

The reign of Elizabeth has been ſtill more idolized than that of Edward; and, without doubt, in many reſpects it was a glorious and happy reign: But whether we ought to prefer it to that tenor of government which hath taken place among us ſince the Revolution, deſerves to be well conſidered. Doctor Warner's book tends very much to convey a juſt apprehenſion of things in this reſpect. From what he writes concerning the character of Elizabeth, the manners of that age, and her method of ruling,—the generality of our Readers will be enabled to form a notion of what they may expect from him, on the after-reigns. We ſhall, however, be very conciſe in our extracts from this part of the Hiſtory, that we may leave ſome room for a due mention of the Doctor's *Appendix*.

As to Elizabeth herſelf: 'Tho' the Queen had been bred 'up,' ſays our Hiſtorian, 'from her infancy, with a hatred to 'the Papacy, and her title to the Crown was founded on a mar-'riage made in defiance of the Pope, yet her firſt impreſſions 'in her father's reign were in favour of ſuch old religious rites 'as he had ſtill retained; and ſhe naturally inclined to ſtate 'and magnificence in her devotions, as well as in her court.— 'She was deſirous to retain images, crucifixes, and croſſes, in-'ſtrumental and vocal muſic, with many of the popiſh habits.

'—It was not without a ſort of proteſtation from the Reformed Divines, in which they all concurred, that her Majeſty conſented to have the images removed;—but ſhe would not part with her altar, nor her crucifix, nor with lighted candles, out of her own chapel. The Gentlemen, and Choriſters, appeared there in their ſurplices, and the Prieſts in their copes; the altar was furniſhed with rich plate, with gilt candleſticks, lighted candles, and a maſſy crucifix of ſilver in the middle. The ſervice was ſung, not only with organs, but with the artificial muſic of cornets, ſackbuts, and pſaltery, on the ſolemn feſtivals. In ſhort, the ſervice performed in the chapel-royal, and in ſome cathedrals, was ſcarcely to be diſtinguiſhed from the Roman, except that it was peformed in the Engliſh tongue. By this means, as the Queen expected, many of the popiſh Laity were allured into conformity, and came regularly to church for nine or ten years; till the Pope, having loſt all hopes of an accommodation, forbad them, by excommunicating the Queen, and laying the kingdom under an interdict.—The truth is, the Queen had ſo much of her father in her, that inſtead of improving the Reformation begun by Edward, ſhe often repented ſhe had gone ſo far. Thus, when the Dean of St. Paul's, in a ſermon at court, ſpoke aloud with ſome diſlike of the ſign of the croſs, her Majeſty called aloud to him from her cloſet, commanding him to deſiſt from that ungodly digreſſion, and to return to his text.—It was not till after a vacancy of nine months, that Grindal was tranſlated to the See of Canterbury; for the Queen, with all her zeal for the church, made no ſcruple of plundering the revenues of it.—She was of opinion, that knowlege and learning in the Laity, would indiſpoſe them for an abſolute ſubmiſſion to her will in the buſineſs of religion.'

Of the age ſhe lived in, we may form ſome judgment by what follows. Moſt of the Biſhops, 'who were now alive, had complied ſo often with the changes in the preceding reigns, that they were at length aſhamed of turning any more.—And imagining, that if they ſtuck cloſe to one another, the Queen would be obliged to diſpenſe with them, and not turn out all the Biſhops in England at one ſtroke, they all refuſed to take the oath' of Supremacy, 'except Rithin, Biſhop of Landaff. But in this they were miſtaken.—The greateſt part of the Clergy, tho' they retained their affections to the old religion, yet thought it moſt adviſeable to comply with the Reformation, that they might keep the Proteſtants out of the churches, and be in a condition themſelves to ſupport their abdicated friends: ſo that if the Queen had died before all that generation was dead, and before a new ſet of men better educated

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'and principled, were grown up in their room, they would 'have probably turned about again, under a Prince of the old 'religion, as nimbly as they had done before in the reign of 'Mary.—The Queen, in her injunctions, having ordered the 'removing of all paintings and monuments of counterfeit mi- 'racles and idolatry, from churches and private houſes, the 'people in their rage and revenge againſt Popery, defaced the 'images of Chriſt and his Apoſtles, and other hiſtorical re- 'preſentations of Scripture in the windows, deſtroyed the mo- 'numents and coats of arms, took down the bells and lead from 'the roofs of churches, and turned the ſteeples into pidgeon- 'houſes.'

Among the Acts of Parliament, obtained in 1580, by Queen Elizabeth, and kept in force during her reign, was one, where- by 'every perſon above ſixteen years of age, who did not come 'to church or chapel, where common prayer was ſaid, accord- 'ing to the Act of Uniformity, was to forfeit twenty pounds 'a month to the Queen, and to ſuffer impriſonment till it was 'paid. In the ſame ſeſſions of Parliament an Act of ſtill great- 'er ſeverity, limited to the life of the Queen, was paſſed by her 'direction; by which the Writer or Publiſher of any book, or 'ballad, or letter, containing falſe, ſeditious, or ſcandalous 'matter, to the defamation of the Queen, or the ſtirring up of 'rebellion, was to ſuffer death without benefit of Clergy.— 'The cruelties exerciſed in this reign, upon worthy Divines of 'the ſame faith, on account of ſubſcriptions not required by 'ſtatute, fell little ſhort of thoſe which Bonner ſhewed the 'Reformers in the time of Mary.—Some Dutch Enthuſiaſts 'were apprehended, who held opinions fitter for Bedlam than 'a Stake; nine of whom were baniſhed, and two burnt in 'Smithfield. The Dutch Congregation interceded earneſtly 'for their lives; and Fox, the Martyrologiſt, wrote an ele- 'gant Latin letter to the Queen, to intreat her to mitigate their 'puniſhment. But the Queen had neither the bowels, nor the 'goodneſs of heart, of her young brother; and the writ for 'burning Heretics, which had been hung up *in terrorem* for al- 'moſt twenty years, was taken down, and put in execution 'upon theſe unhappy men.—Whilſt there were any hopes on 'either ſide of compromiſing the difference, the controverſy 'between the Church and the Puritans was carried on with ſome 'decency; but when theſe hopes were vaniſhed, the contend- 'ing parties loaded each other with the moſt abuſive language. 'The Puritans led the way in this perſonal ſlander; and the 'Queen iſſued a Proclamation to ſuppreſs all ſuch books.—By 'the conſtruction of her Judges it was determined, that—li- 'bels—againſt the Biſhops, who were her Officers, and acted

'by authority under her, tended to defame the Queen herſelf. 'Some of the Puritan Clergy ſuffered death upon this conſtruc- 'tion; and one of them, who was no otherwiſe proved to be 'the Writer of ſuch a libel upon the Biſhops, than by the evi- 'dence of a man, who had ſeen papers of that ſort in his ſtu- 'dy, but refuſed to appear in court to give his teſtimony; and 'by the hearſay evidence of two others, taken in examina- 'tion, who had afterwards abſconded, and wrote word, that 'they were ſorry for what they ſaid; was in this manner con- 'demned to die.'—The 'Puritan Miniſters, when brought to 'the gallows, gave ſuch teſtimonies of their loyalty to the 'Queen, praying earneſtly for her long and proſperous reign, 'that the Court was ſtruck with this behaviour, and began to 'be aſhamed of hanging men for ſedition againſt the State, 'who died with ſuch ſtrong profeſſions of loyalty to her Ma- 'jeſty, and the Government. It is ſaid that the Queen herſelf 'was diſpleaſed, when ſhe heard of the devotion and fidelity of 'the ſufferers; and it was therefore reſolved, for the future,'— inſtead of putting 'them to death, to baniſh them.'——

We ſhall conclude our extracts from this Hiſtory, with a meſſage of this Queen to her Houſe of Commons, by their Speaker; and our Hiſtorian's reflection upon it. The ſubſtance of the maſſage was, "That the calling and diſſolving of Parliaments, the aſſenting and diſſenting to any bills paſſed there, was part of her Prerogative; and that the calling this Parliament was only, that ſuch as neglected the ſervice of the Church might be compelled to it—with ſome ſharp laws, the better to provide for the ſafety of her perſon and the realm; that it was not meant that they ſhould meddle with matters of State, or cauſes Eccleſiaſtical; that ſhe wondered they ſhould attempt a thing ſo contrary to her command; that ſhe was highly offended at it, and that it was her royal pleaſure, that no bill touching any matters of State and cauſes Eccleſiaſtical, ſhould be there exhibited."—'Had the majority of that 'Houſe,' ſays Dr. Warner, 'had the ſpirit of Engliſhmen, 'they would not have ſubmitted ſo tamely to the inſults of an 'arbitrary woman; who arreſted their Members, and commit- 'ted them to priſon, for ſpeaking only of oppreſſions contrary 'to law; who forbad their redreſſing the grievances of Church 'or State, and ſent for their bills out of the houſe, and cancel- 'ed them.'

The Appendix gives ample proof of our Author's affection towards his brethren, and generous concern for the relief of the poor belonging to his order; whilſt, at the ſame time it expoſes the narrowneſs of ſpirit, the ſelfiſhneſs, and avarice, of the rich and indolent among the Clergy, who will, it ſeems,

ſeems, contribute nothing toward the decent ſupport of the indigent and uſeful. This conduct, in our Engliſh Clergy, muſt appear the more blame-worthy, when we have had ſo recent an inſtance, in that of Scotland, whoſe funds for beneficence are comparitively ſo inconſiderable, of what may be effected within itſelf for the good of a Community, when the members of it feel for one another. From his brethren, this humane Author ſeems to have recourſe to the known goodneſs of the nation. What he ſuggeſts, deſerves our attention.

'Of the nine thouſand and ſome hundred churches and chapels which we have in England and Wales, ſix thouſand, I 'ſpeak it on the beſt authority, are not above the value of forty 'pounds a year.'—As to Queen Anne's royal bounty. 'It 'will, indeed, be the work of ages, before all the Livings in-'titled to an augmentation, can receive any benefit from it: 'and it will be five hundred years, before every Living can be 'raiſed to ſixty pounds a year by this royal bounty; ſuppoſing 'the ſame money to be diſtributed as there has been for ſome 'years paſt.—Would it not, therefore, better anſwer the de-'ſignation of the Firſt Fruits and Tenths, in relieving the 'wants and miſeries of the inferior Clergy, that the Tenths, 'at leaſt, if not the intereſt of the ſum accumulated, ſhould 'be annually divided among ſuch widows, or children, of the 'Clergy, as are in diſtreſs? I preſume to ſay it would. The 'great ſum in hand, with the Firſt Fruits continually adding to 'it, would be ſufficient to anſwer the demands of augmentati-'on, according to the preſent act, for a long courſe of years: 'and if this method was taken of ſupplying the wants of the 'families of Clergymen, perhaps, for ever.—The conſequence 'of accumulating ſuch an immenſe ſum in the hands of the 'Church, which many people pretend to dread already, may, 'by this annual method of diſtribution, be prevented.—But 'ſhould there be ſufficient reaſons againſt any alteration of the 'act for the augmentation of ſmall Livings,—in the way that 'I have propoſed, yet one remedy is ſtill left;—a remedy which 'is entirely in the power of the Legiſlature, which infringes on 'the right and property of none of the ſubjects of England, 'and which will be no leſs ſerviceable to the State than to the 'Church, that it ſhould be applied to the better maintenance of 'our parochial Clergy. The Reader, who does not know it, 'will be ſurprized, perhaps, to be told, that eſtates in this 'kingdom, of no leſs value than *four-ſcore thouſand pounds* a 'year, are left to the ſupport of religious houſes and ſeminaries 'abroad. I do not publiſh this from common fame, for very 'few, even of our great men, know any thing of it; but I 'ſpeak it on authority not to be contradicted. If the Parlia-

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'ment, therefore, would addreſs the Crown for theſe eſtates, 'which are juſtly forfeited, the annual produce of which is ſent 'out of the kingdom expreſsly contrary to law, and contrary to 'its religion and civil intereſts, there is no doubt but the Crown 'would grant them: and theſe eſtates, together with the royal 'bounty, would make an effectual augmentation of all the 'ſmall Livings, as well as ſome proviſion for the widows and 'children of the Clergy.'——

Upon the whole, whatever inaccuracies of expreſſion may have ſlipt into this work, they are of ſo trivial a nature, and occur ſo ſeldom, that they plainly appear to be the effect of an aſſiduous attention to circumſtances of much higher importance. If candour, if ſpirit, and good ſenſe, can recommend, or ſupport a performance, this Hiſtory will command the reſpect of preſent times, and convey the Author's name, with reputation, down to poſterity.

The Memoirs and Letters of Ulicke, Marquis of Clanricarde and Earl of St. Albans; Lord-Lieutenant of Ireland, Commander in Chief of the Forces of King Charles the Firſt in that Kingdom, during the Rebellion, Governor of the County and Town of Galway, Lord-Lieutenant of the County of Kent, and Privy-Counſellor in England and Ireland. Printed from an authentic Manuſcript, and now firſt *publiſhed by the preſent Earl of Clanricarde.* Folio. 1l. 11s. 6d. Dodſley.

IF the publication of ſuch family-Vouchers and Teſtimonials of Family-Virtues and Abilities as theſe, is more immediately for the honour of the great name or names they belong to, they alſo contribute not a little to the gratification of the public: In point of authenticity they certainly deſerve to rank next to public Records: and in point of information, they poſſibly deſerve to rank before them. The Record, ſatisfied with ſpecifying and perpetuating the thing, is generally ſilent as to the manner in which it was conducted, and the characters of thoſe employed in it: whereas, in ſuch collections as theſe, we have the performers all the way before our eyes, and ſuch a clue in our hand, that it is our own faults if we do not become almoſt as well acquainted with every object ſet before us, as our guides themſelves.

It is, however, to be regretted, for the ſake of the noble Editor, that he was not appriſed of a performance publiſhed in the year 1722, under the title of "Memoirs of the Right Honourable

"nourable the Marquis of Clanricarde, &c. Published from "his Lordſhip's original Manuſcripts." For tho' that work is but a ſingle octavo, this a large folio; tho' that contains but the documents relating to one ſingle tranſaction, this all, as it is reaſonable to think, without reſerve, from October 1641, to Auguſt 1652, together with a brief of all the intelligence the Marquis received of public affairs during that period, both in England and Ireland;—it deſerved, on many accounts, to have been made the baſis, at leaſt, of this ſubſequent publication. The tranſaction there ſelected out of the heap, is the moſt remarkable one that his Lordſhip was ever concerned in; the merit of it is diſcuſſed at large in a preliminary diſcourſe; the papers of moſt importance, relating to it, are added, out of the very collection, ſaid in the title-page to be now *firſt* publiſhed: and what is moſt remarkable of all, the candour and impartiality of Lord Clarendon, in ſtating the Iriſh affairs, is in the ſaid diſcuſſion very importunately called into queſtion. It is true the Author does not appear more concerned for the rectitude of Lord Clanricarde's conduct, and the ſplendour of his character, than to remove the imputations brought by the ſaid noble Hiſtorian, againſt the Papiſts of Ireland; which is an attempt that never can be ſerviceable to any Author, or any book, amongſt us. But then as he has brought many facts, and many authorities, together, in moſt of which the Marquis of Clanricarde is directly or indirectly concerned, ſo much attention was due to his peformance as would ſerve to aſcertain the true value of it.

As to the tranſaction ſo ſelected, it was no leſs than a treaty with the Duke of Lorrain, for aids of money, men, and ſhips, at firſt opened for the King's ſervice, againſt thoſe of his ſubjects who, by the fortune of war, were every where become his ſuperiors, but intended to procure his Highneſs, his heirs, and ſucceſſors, the title and prerogatives of Protector-Royal of Ireland, and all ſuch other advantages, it may be ſafely preſumed, as the public misfortunes might have given riſe to. The Marquis could not, indeed, be brought to treat with him on terms ſo diſhonourable to the Crown; but the more zealous among the Catholics, were for admitting all without reſerve: and the Commiſſioners employed to treat with his Highneſs, did actually ſign an inſtrument with him to that effect, in the name of the Kingdom and People of Ireland, without the leaſt mention of his Majeſty therein, or acknowlegement of his title. And the Mayor and Corporation of Galway went ſo far, as even to recognize him accordingly. Through the firmneſs of Lord Clanricarde, however, countenanced and abetted by the Marquis of Ormond, (the latter nominal Lord-Lieutenant, as the former

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was nominal Lord-Deputy, of Ireland) the men of Galway were ſeverely reprimanded, the Commiſſioners diſowned, and the whole affair came to nothing. Soon after which the kingdom ſubmitted to the Conquerors, and received the law in what manner they pleaſed to impoſe it.

For the reſt, thoſe that write of the tranſactions of theſe things, and thoſe who read the ordinary accounts given of them, with a deſire to underſtand them thoroughly, would do well to have all ſuch collections as theſe within their reach; and every man of action, ſurrounded with difficulties and dangers, and deſtitute of all reſource, but ſuch as his own mind, and his own heart, could furniſh him with, would do as well, in making this illuſtrious Nobleman his example.

Obſervations on the Compleat Body of Huſbandry continued; See Review for July, 1757.

WE now proceed to the third book of this voluminous work; which profeſſes, by its title, to treat of *fences*, and of improving land by *incloſing* and *draining:* and here we ſhall be very brief, on account of our having dwelt ſo long on the two former books.

The introduction and two ſubſequent chapters of this book, are one tedious and extravagant (1) declamation, ſtamped with the ſpecious names of argument and reaſon, on the vaſt benefits of *incloſures*; in which the advantages, non-advantages (2) and

(1) It muſt, we think, ſeem extravagant, to aſſert, that incloſing land ſhould *at once* raiſe its rent to 'ten times its former price;' and that 'no attempt this way can be named, that has not enriched the 'owner.' What is this, but to urge owners of land (ignorant of country affairs, and taking all this for goſpel) to *incloſing*, at any rate, charges, and hazard, and in any ſituation, with the expectations of an alchymiſt, and followed, perhaps, with his diſappointments too?

(2) Such are the weak notions of hedges defending crops of corn from the wind, and from the cold nipping blaſts in the ſpring; preſerving the natural heart of the land, and the richneſs it derives from manure;—and that the ſame manure will do twice the ſervice on a ſheltered warm cloſe, that it will in the open field: and that incloſed land yields much larger crops from the ſame ſeed and dreſſing, than the open fields.

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diſadvantages (3) of them are drawn into court by head and ſhoulders, and conſtrained to give evidence in their favour.

After having ſaid much more than is true, (of which the notes below make ſome mention) and yet not ſaid the whole truth, they come at length to tell us, that 'as to graſs for paſturage, 'or hay, there is no compariſon between the quantity growing 'on incloſed, and on common lands;' the difference (we ſuppoſe, for we are not told it) is ſo great on the ſide of incloſures. Yet, preſently after, they acknowlege, that 'in meadow 'land there is a loſs by having too many hedges (4) by the 'quantity of graſs they ſpoil by their ſhade and drippings (5).' And pray, Sirs, do not you think they muſt be full as bad for corn as for graſs? We will venture to aſſure you they are a great deal worſe: then to what purpoſe is this crowd of words, in praiſe of what *you* own to be bad for graſs, and *we* know to be much worſe for corn?

Again, they alſo acknowlege the truth of 'that common opi-'nion, that wheat is more ſubject to blaſts and mildews,' in incloſures than in open fields (6); but this, they ſay is not the effects of incloſures, it is owing, it ſeems, to the land being richer, (i. e. made richer by dreſſing, elſe it cannot differ from the open field of the ſame kind.) But in years of great mildews

(3) Wind is ſo far from being a diſadvantage to corn, as they ſay, that it is eſteemed (particularly at ſome ſeaſons) beneficial even to a proverb. *When April blows his horn, 'tis good for graſs and corn.* And, *A dry May and* windy, *makes a barn full and findy.* The *wind* is to a *plant*, in effect, what *exerciſe* is to an *animal*; therefore this is a great miſtake. And it equally partakes of ignorance and error to ſuppoſe that incloſures preſerve the natural and artificial goodneſs of land: and a moſt miſchievous and falſe aſſertion, *that it is found, that the ſame manure will do twice the ſervice on a quiet ſheltered cloſe, that it will in the open fields:* and *that it is certain, and well known, that incloſed land yields much more corn from the ſame ſeed and dreſſing than the open field does.*—Here's hair-ſplitting!—here's huſbandry!

(4) Though juſt before they had affirmed, 'that the ſmaller the in-'cloſures are ſeverally made, (that is, the more hedges there are) the 'greater is the improvement.'

(5) And why not by their roots? which, in fact, do more harm to graſs, but eſpecially corn, than both the other: and yet our experienced Authors never thought of this.

(6). How does this ſquare with that notion of 'incloſures defend-'ing the crop from thoſe cold nipping blaſts in the ſpring*? Or, are there two ſorts of blaſts, one which the hedges can keep off, and the other, which they cannot?

* Chap. 2, Paragraph 6.

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and blaſts, thoſe lands that are leaſt dreſſed, being the coldeſt and deadeſt, are generally much more affected by them, than other lands of the ſame ſoil which happen to be dreſſed: for as the principal cauſe of mildews and blaſts of wheat in particular, is cold wet ſeaſons, it is evident, that thoſe ſoils that are the leaſt dreſſed, muſt have the leaſt warmth in them, and muſt ſuffer the moſt by the wet.

Chap. 3. *Of the ſeveral Kinds of Fences.* Parag. 2.

Here our Authors ſeem reſolved to make ſure of ſome ſort of fence or other; for, ſay they, 'when the ſoil is too barren for 'the growth of an hedge, there is often ſtone ready for the build-'ing of a wall.' Forgetting, or perhaps never knowing, that the moſt barren ſoils, as ſands, gravels, &c. have generally the fewelt ſtones in them fit to build walls; and are therefore the moſt improper for that purpoſe: ſo that here their invention fails them. —Again, it is ſaid, that 'when *it* (the ſoil) is too damp for the 'thriving of thoſe ſhrubs, which uſually are planted for that pur-'poſe, the very water that denies recourſe to the common me-'thod, will fill ditches, which will anſwer the purpoſe.' Here again is another defect of memory or knowlege; for thoſe damp grounds are the mother-ſoils to ſome of the quickeſt growing, beſt, and moſt uſeful hedge-woods, and alſo of ſome uſeful timber, as the ſallow, willow, alder, apſe, or poplar, &c. both for mechanical uſes and for firing. The alder is a moſt ſerviceable wood, for numbers of mechanical uſes; and an old proverb ſays, that, *A willow will buy a horſe, before an oak will the ſaddle.* As for the apſe, we are informed, that on uncovering part of the roof of the abbey church at St. Alban's, Hertfordſhire, ſome years ago, a large beam of apſe was found, with this diſtich on it,

Heart of Oak, though ne'er ſo ſtout,
Keep me dry, and I'll tire you out.

Chap. 4. treats of ditches, and their uſe in fencing; in which we perceive little worth the Reader's notice. We were told in the laſt chapter, paragraph 8, that 'in wet meadows, *the incle-'ſures need not be ſo ſmall*; for lying low, and being well wa-'tered, they are better defended in their own nature, both againſt 'the winds, and the ſun.' The water, it is true, will moderate the heat of the ſun, as well as co-operate with it in vegetation, and thus be ſomething more than a mere defence; but why the meadow ſhould require ſo much ſhelter againſt the wind, we own we cannot comprehend. Nor can we diſcern the conſiſtency of this paſſage, with the following in this fourth chapter, paragraph penult. where they ſay, 'that the ſame ground which,

own

'lying open, is wet, and shakes under the feet, and receives 'their impression when trod on, will, when divided by a good 'number of ditches, be rendered firm and sound,' &c.—and from thence infer, 'that in inclosing and dividing land by ditches, as 'well as hedges, *the smaller the inclosures are generally made the better.*' In chap. 2, parag. 19, and 21. see two more similar passages, which seem equally to require a reconciler of contradictions to harmonize them.

Chap. 5. *Of Draining in general.*

In paragraph 2, we are informed, that 'the lands which have 'occasion for draining, are always such as admit no other fence 'but that by ditching; for they are too wet for quickset-hedges, 'and too soft to bear the weight of walls: so that nothing raised 'upon the surface can answer the purpose.' It is really surprizing, that our Authors should have yet no better considered the matter, than to imagine that any land, worth (or, indeed, not worth) draining, should be 'too wet for quickset-hedges,' of one kind or another (7), when their own eyes must have informed them (were they those travellers they pretend to be) of the contrary (8). But they write, indeed, as if they had not travelled out of the sound of *Bow-bell:* even in books of husbandry, else must they have known better.

Chapters 6, 7, 8, contain the great business of draining boggy, fenny, and flat lands.—In which we meet with little more than is already known in those parts where such soils abound, and already laid down in a fuller manner, though in much smaller volumes of husbandry (9). Though some of the rules seem, in the main, to be good, as (for instance) the making the *master-drain* (10.) below the level of the springs, a foot or

(7) For by the general expression *quickset-hedge*, we apprehend is included all common sorts of quickset-hedges.

(8) See remarks on the third chapter.

(9) As Fitz-Herbarde, above 250 years since: Bradley's Husbandry, &c. &c.

10) The master-drain is directed to be filled with stones, and refuse wood upon them; and covered over with some of the earth that came out of it. But the smaller drains, called here, Trenches, are (for any thing we are told to the contrary) to be left open; which seems to us a wrong practice. We apprehend they should all be left open, or all filled up; or, if it were necessary for any to be filled up, it should rather be the small drains, or trenches; which would not be

or more, where it can be done at a reaſonable expence, is certainly a good way.

But we think their Readers ſhould have been acquainted, that the ſprings generally lie on the hard, gravelly, or ſandy ground, at the bottom of the ſoil or moory earth, be this ever ſo deep; that *they* even ſometimes ſpring out of that gravelly, or ſandy ground (11); and that the moory ſoil in ſome places, lies four, five, ſix, ſeven, or more feet deep over it, which may render land very difficult and chargeable to drain in the manner they direct.

There is a particular way of making large drains deſcribed here, which might not occur to every farmer, who has low, meadow, or boggy land; though it ſeems to us too expenſive to be practiſed with advantage: yet, as we would not always decide or determine for our Readers, we ſhall give the ſubſtance of our Author's deſcription of them. It is no more than to dig holes in the meadow, or boggy, land, ſeven foot deep, and four foot wide, in a line at about eight feet diſtance, and to be opened into each other at bottom, ſo as to form one continued drain through them all; leaving a thickneſs of three feet of earth over the drain between the holes. 'Bruſh-wood, or any uſeleſs 'materials of a like kind, are to be thruſt into the drain every 'where, to keep it open;' but whether the holes are afterwards to be covered over with earth, we are not told.

We have alſo a deſcription of an engine, called a *ſail-wheel*, that ſeems uſeful for the purpoſe of carrying water off low grounds. It is 'compoſed of about a dozen ſpokes, faſhioned 'according to the particular purpoſe, and is turned by ſails like 'thoſe of a common windmill.' It will carry water off a flat, or where there is ſome riſe, if it be ſomewhat varied in its make. 'When it is only to puſh the water along a flat, for the getting it 'off, the ſpokes are made broad, and ſet a little ſloping:' and all move 'between a couple of upright boards, which make a kind

be ſo liable to be ſtopped up by any accident, as running into an open drain. But were the main drain to be filled up, as here directed, and the ſmall ones left open, holes muſt be left in the ſides of that, againſt the mouths of the ſmall ones, to receive the water from them: theſe would not fail of being ſoon ſtopped up by accidents, treading of cattle, falling of earth from above, and the refuſe ſoil, mud, &c. drove down by the water out of the ſmall drains.

(11) And run between *it* and the moory ſoil above, which abſorbs them, ſo that when the moory ſoil is dug into, no ſprings appear, only a muddy wet earth; till the whole depth of it is dug through, to the hard, ſandy, gravelly, &c. bottom, and then the ſprings will boil up like a pot; and often preſently fill the hole.

over

'of trench for them to play through.' When the water is to be raiſed to any little height, in order to be carried off, the ſpokes are made hollow, like ſo many ſcoops; and ſet ſo as to deliver the water juſt at that pitch. But 'if the water is to be 'thrown out at a larger height, as over a bank, or an eminence 'of the ground, the ſpokes are made in the faſhion of ſo many 'boxes, which do not throw the water out before them, but 'take it up, and retain it; letting it, as they riſe, run into an 'hollow circle that goes round the ſpokes, at about half their 'length; whence it is diſcharged again from the back of the 'ſpokes, as the wheel deſcends.'

Having given ſome account of what our Authors have ſaid on draining, &c. we ſhall juſt hint at one or two particulars in which they ſeem defective. Firſt, they tell us, that the loweſt places of the ground muſt be choſen for the principal drain. But here are no directions given for finding theſe *loweſt places:* and as mere gueſſing is hazardous, and may occaſion the loſs of all the labour and charge, and damage the meadow beſides, by the main drain not being made in the loweſt parts, we ſhall endeavour to ſupply this deficiency.

To find the loweſt places of any wet meadow, bog, fen, &c. that is liable to be overflowed, or to have the water ſtand on it, —when the water is over it, drive ſtakes into the ground in the deepeſt places of water, (for there the ground is loweſt) and let their heads remain exactly even with the ſurface of the water. By this means, the different lengths of the ſtakes will ſhew where the ground is loweſt, and where higheſt in the parts covered with water; and when the water is off, make the *maſter-drain*, from ſtake to ſtake, deep or ſhallow, as the length of the ſtakes direct: and the ſmaller drains may be made by the ſame rule. This we think an eaſy, natural way, to obtain the level and deſcent of ground liable to be overflowed.

Secondly, their diſtinction of wet ground, into, 1. boggy land, 2. fenny land, or large flats, often extending 'on an 'exact level for a vaſt many miles,' and, 3. flat lands, near great rivers,—ſeems to us wrong; we ſhould think it more natural, and ſimple, and therefore more uſeful, to divide them into two principal ſorts. Firſt, thoſe lands that have ſprings in them; ſecondly, thoſe that have none, yet are wet and cold. The firſt of theſe are of two kinds (12.), the one, low meadow land, with deep ſprings, that are almoſt continually running, and ſoaking

(12) A very good reaſon may be given for this ſub-diviſion, for tho' both theſe ſorts have ſprings in them, yet do they require a different management to keep them from being injured by theſe ſprings: but this is not our preſent buſineſs.

the ground; the other, high meadows and hilly ground, with ſhallow ſprings, which ouze up, and riſe into, the upper ſtratum or ſtaple, and keep that wet and cold: this ſort is called *ſpuey*, not *boggy* land. Secondly, that ſort of land which is wet and cold, and yet has few if any ſprings in it, is alſo of two ſorts, Firſt, thoſe low meadows which lie flat and below the level of the country, with a deep ſoil or bottom. The wetneſs of this ſoil is principally cauſed by its lowneſs, flatneſs, and depth. Secondly, thoſe higher meadows, and hilly grounds, whoſe wetneſs is cauſed by the cloſeneſs and clayeyneſs of the ſoil, by which it holds the water, and will not let it filter through:—though this and the ſpuey ſort are ſometimes found together.

Thirdly, our Authors might have added, as an improvement to low, meadow, boggy, flaggy, ruſhy grounds,—ſuperinductions of hard, dry, earths, as gravels, ſands, chalks, ſtones, &c. which, laid on ſuch lands, are of vaſt ſervice, to bind, ſettle, ſtiffen, faſten, and warm it; and keep the ſprings from ouzing up, and riſing into it: they, as it were, ſqueeze and preſs them out at other cavities.

The reſt of the chapters in this book, to the number of fourteen, treat of hedges: the methods of raiſing quickſets from ſeeds; to plant them for fences; to keep theſe in order, and to make and plaſh them, when at proper growth: alſo of the different ſorts of hedges, and the profits of them, &c. In which there are ſome uſeful directions, (13.) though we think few that are unknown to the real practical huſbandman; and then they are ſo blended with numbers of trifling notions and chimerical fancies (14), that

(13) Such as the hint that the roots of old white thorns being beautifully knotted and veined, are fit for many of the elegant works of cabinet-makers, &c.—The beſt method of making a ditch, viz. with ſloping ſides and a narrow bottom, to cramp the feet of the cattle, and render it difficult for them to ſtand in it to crop the quick on the bank. — The method of managing the elder ‡, for a fence, &c. which ſeems uſeful and curious; and we apprehend ſeveral other quick-growing ſhrubs of which our Authors have not given the leaſt hint, might be ordered in the ſame manner.

‡ A ſhrub they ſay, (and we believe truly) that cattle will not touch.

(14) Such as, to ſelect the *pooreſt ſpot* of land for a nurſery of quickſets! Did theſe Gentlemen conſider how weak their ſets muſt be on ſuch poor ſlow ground; how long in growing to a proper ſize for tranſplanting; the loſs of time this will occaſion to an already (as they ſay) 'tedious method;' the danger ſuch weak, ſlow-growing tender plants are in of being killed by inſects and vermin, extremes of weather, &c. on poor land, beyond what ſtrong forward, quick-growing plants on good land are; and how ſmall a num-

that the ignorant in huſbandry will not be able to diſcern one from the other: and to the experienced, we may reaſonably ſuppoſe, they are already known. There are likewiſe ſeveral, as we think, conſiderable defects; on ſome of which (15) (that we may not

ber may (for the above reaſons) probably ſurvive on ſuch land, notwithſtanding all their care, while the principal one (of procuring them good nouriſhment) is omitted? We have had occaſion to animadvert on this ſoleciſm in planting, in the former part of our remarks.

And what a fancy is that *to ſhade the plants!* to keep the ſun, the all-enlivening, vivifying parent of nature, from aſſiſting the young quick (by warming the ground, and rarefying and putting in motion their juices) to ſtrike root! and how odd is it to talk of a 'full ſcorching ſun,' at the two only ſeaſons (as they ſay) for planting a quick-ſet-hedge, (i. e.) 'early in the ſpring, or late in the autumn.'

It is equally chimerical to aſſert, that the 'richneſs of a ſoil tends 'to throw the nouriſhment in all ſhrubs into the leaves, and 'not into the woody part.' Were this true, the pooreſt ground would be the moſt proper for hedges; and yet, on ſuch land, it is found, by obſervation and experience, that only furze, ling, and ſuch like inſignificant ſhrubs will grow.

(15) It is certainly an omiſſion, or defect, of conſiderable conſequence, in ſuch a *complete* work as this, not to give us any account of, nor even to mention, ſeveral uſeful and common ſhrubs for hedges and firing, as the nut-hazel, aſh, beech, maple, &c. &c. inſtead of which we are entertained with long harangues on the holly, a ſhrub ſo ſlow of growth, that it is not worth any farmer's care; the furze, a ſhrub of little value, and not worth planting where any thing elſe will grow; and the bramble, or blackberry, (a ruiner and deſtroyer of hedges, and good for nothing but that, and to tear the wool off the backs of the ſheep.

And where we are told, that the principal weeds which are deſtructive to hedges, are 'the white and black briony, bind-weed, and tra-'veller's joy;' *briars*, as bad for hedges as ſome of the others, are omitted: on the contrary, one kind of them, (the bramble or blackberry) is entered into the article of hedge-wood-ſhrubs, with a hint at the ſhame that art does not imitate nature * in the propagation of it: becauſe, forſooth, ſhe ſometimes ſupplies the defects of hedges with brambles, Whereas, in truth, they much oftener occaſion thoſe defects, by killing the hedge-wood where they are ſuffered to grow.

* Here our Authors ſeems to have expreſſed themſelves ſomewhat inaccurately.

Their words run thus, 'Nature—ſupplies the defects of hedges 'with brambles; and it is a ſhame that art does not imitate *them* 'in this,' &c. We ſuppoſe they would, or ſhould have ſaid, it is a ſhame, that art does not imitate *nature* (not *them* i. e. the *brambles*) in this, &c.

not be thought to bring any charge without proofs to support it) we have animadverted in the notes.

The Epigoniad. A Poem, in nine books. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Edinburgh. Hamilton, &c.

THIS Poem, as the Author informs us, 'is called the 'Epigoniad, becauſe the heroes, whoſe actions it celebrates, have got the name of *Epigones*,' (*Epigoni*, he ſhould have ſaid) 'being the ſons of thoſe who attempted the conqueſt of 'Thebes in a former expedition.'

When the Poet carries his Readers back into claſſic antiquity, he ſeems in a peculiar manner to beſpeak the patronage of the learned; for them his labours appear to be calculated, and from them alone he muſt expect an adequate reward: but then, as he writes for the ſcholar, it is expected that he himſelf ſhould be one of the number. Poſſeſſed of this advantage, the learned will regard him with fraternal tenderneſs; and though he may not obtain the higheſt applauſe, he is ſure at leaſt to meet with indulgence for ſlight defects. On the contrary, if he be detected of ignorance, when he pretends to learning, his caſe, indeed, will deſerve our pity: too antique to pleaſe one party, and too modern for the other, he is deſerted by both, read by few, and ſoon forgotten by all, except his enemies.

The Epigoniad ſeems to be one of theſe *new old* performances; a work that would no more have pleaſed a peripatetic of the academic grove, than it will captivate the unlettered ſubſcriber to one of our circulating libraries.

'Tradition,' ſays the Author in his preface) 'is the beſt 'ground on which a fable can be built, not only becauſe it 'gives the appearance of reality to things that are merely fictitious, but likewiſe becauſe it ſupplies a poet with the moſt 'proper materials for his invention to work upon.' We might have expected from this remark, that he had not only taken tradition for the ground of his fable, but employed it alſo to guide him through the narration; nevertheleſs, unfortunately, he has not only forſook, but contradicted it, on almoſt every occaſion: and given up the conduct of his poem, to an invention barren of incidents, or at beſt productive of trifling ones.

Euſtathius, in his commentary upon the fourth book of the Iliad, gives us a liſt of the nine warriors, who were called the Epi-

Epigoni; moſt of which our Author never once mentions in this poem, but, inſtead of them introduces, not the deſcendants of thoſe unfortunate heroes who fell before Thebes in a former expedition, but ſeveral of their cotemporaries: as Theſeus and Neſtor, who had no motives of revenge to prompt them to this undertaking. Theſeus in particular was not there; for we find in the Suppliants of Euripides, that Theſeus went upon a former expedition to Thebes, to procure funeral honours for the ſeven fathers of the Epigoni, who lay unburied before the walls of that city; and at the end of the ſame tragedy we are told, that the capture of the city was reſerved for the Epigoni alone. Our Poet alſo gives Theſeus the conduct of the war, in contradiction to Diodorus Siculus, who affirms, that by the advice of the oracle of Apollo, Alcmæon was conſtituted Generaliſſimo. He likewiſe makes Creon King of Thebes; but Creon had been dead four years before; and Euſtathius poſitively ſays, that Laodamas was at that time their King.

The Author's diſregard of the traditions of the antients, is not more flagrant than his neglect of their manners and cuſtoms; thus he introduces Virgins as prieſteſſes at the altar of Venus *, talks of Styx as a river of fire †, gives a nymph the conveyance of winged ſhoes ‡, the caduceus of Mercury he calls his ſceptre §, and inſtead of the whiſtle which Virgil deſcribes as pendant from the neck of Polyphemus, our Author claps a bag on the giant's back,

—— around his ſhoulders flung,
His bag enormous, by a cable hung.

Here is a large bag, and a very ſtrong rope to tie it withal; but we cannot conceive what uſe the Cyclops had for ſuch a bag, unleſs he choſe to wear it as our phyſicians wear their ſwords, merely for ornament.

However, we muſt acknowlege, though he had been minutely exact, nor ever tranſgreſſed in any of the above mentioned particulars, his ſubject is of ſuch a nature as could at beſt have afforded us but ſmall ſatisfaction. We ſpeak with regard to our own particular feelings; and ſome may perhaps wonder, when we aſſign as a reaſon of our diſguſt, our being conſcious, that the Poet believes not a ſyllable of all he tells us. Poets, like flatterers, are only heard with pleaſure, when they themſelves ſeem perſuaded of the truth of all they deliver. Boileau, to convince us that he believes what he writes, avers, that if he has any ſucceſs beyond his cotemporary poets, it is wholly owing to his being ſuperior to them in point of truth. We have no reaſon to doubt

* Page 5. † Page 8. ‡ Page 9. § Page 75.

but Homer, who lived in an age of ignorance, and conſequently of credulity, believed, or at leaſt was thought to believe, what he relates: and Virgil, though he might not credit the ſtory of Eneas, yet his countrymen gave credit to it. Witches and enchanters, too, made a part of the popiſh mythology (if we may ſo call it) in the days of Taſſo: and the ſubject of Paradiſe Loſt is reverenced with almoſt univerſal aſſent.

As we have nothing to commend in this Author's plan, ſo we have little to praiſe with reſpect to his execution. He has, indeed, ſome good lines, and here and there ſomething of the true ſpirit of poetry flaſhes out; but what can be ſaid for ſuch paſſages as the following?

> The Gods *aſſembled met*; and view'd from far,
> Thebes and the various combats of the war.
> From all apart, the Paphian goddeſs ſat,
> And *pity'd in her heart* her fav'rite ſtate,
> Decreed to periſh by the argive bands,
> Pallas's art, Tydides' *mighty hands*.

That the Gods not only *aſſembled* but *met*, is truly marvellous; and as truly piteous is the diſtreſs of poor Venus:—but we are chiefly ſtruck with the Broughtonian Idea of Diomed's *mutton-fiſts*; which the Author ſeems fond of diſplaying upon moſt occaſions. Thus in another place, p. 13.

> ——— graſping in his *mighty hand*
> The regal ſtaff.———

Again, p. 67.

> Andremon firſt, beneath his *mighty hand*,
> Of life bereft, lay ſtretch'd upon the ſand.

The hands of Minerva, too, though a lady, were, it ſeems, caſt in the ſame mould with thoſe of her favourite Tydides, vide page 132, the prayer of Ulyſſes.

> Great Queen of arts! on thee my hopes depend:
> - - - - - -
> By thee my infant-arms were taught to throw
> The dart with certain aim, and bend the bow:
> Oft on my *little hands*, immortal maid!
> To guide the ſhaft, *thy mighty hands* were laid.——

Our witty countryman, Butler, ſays, that

> —'Rhime the rudder is of verſes,
> 'With which, like ſhips, they ſteer their courſes.

And therefore,

'Thoſe

'Thoſe who write in rhyme ſtill make
'The one verſe for the other's ſake;
'For one for ſenſe, and one for rhyme,
'I think's ſufficient at one time.

Our *handy* Poet ſeems to have profited by this obſervation; and therefore we need not wonder to ſee him, like a good ſteerſman, ſo conſtantly keep his *hands* to the rudder; of which we have the following, among other inſtances, viz.

P. 13. ——graſping in his *mighty hand*,
The regal ſtaff, the ſign of high command.

——— in whoſe *ſuperior hand*,
Conſenting Princes plac'd their chief command. p. 14.

——— the Prince, whoſe *ſov'reign hand*
Sways the dread ſcepter of ſupreme command.

Supine he fell amidſt his native bands,
And wrench'd the fixed dart with *dying hands*. p. 30.

Only be men, and make the argive bands
Dread in ſucceeding times your *mighty hands*. p. 38.

Their valiant Chief reſign'd to *hoſtile hands*,
He thus aloud addreſs'd the ſcatt'ring bands. p. 44.

In the devoted line myſelf I ſtand,
And here muſt periſh by ſome *hoſtile hand*, p. 53.

Silent amidſt th'aſſembled peers he ſtands,
And wipes his falling tears with trembling hands *. p. 78.

——— Thebes on ev'ry ſide aſſembled ſtands,
And ſupplicates the Gods with *lifted hands*. p. 80.

Now in full view before the guards they ſtand,
The prieſt diſplays his enſigns in his *hand*. p. 81.

——— the princely band,
By turns preſented each his *friendly hand*. p. 83.

——— they ſoon ſhall feel my *hand*,
And rue that e'er they touch'd Trinacria's ſtrand. p. 90.

——— with his *weighty hand*,
Their flight oppreſs'd, and mix'd them with the ſand. p. 92.

Oblations vow'd, if, by his *mighty hand*,
Conducted ſafe, I found my native land. p. 99.

* The imagery in this couplet being perfectly juſt, we are ſomewhat concerned that two ſuch good lines ſhould fall into ſuch bad company.

Theſe eyes beheld when, with a *ruthleſs hand*,
My wretched mates you murder'd on the ſtrand. p. 101.

If heav'ns dread ſov'reign, to my *vengeful hand*
His waſting flames would yield, and forked brand. p. 102.

Who ſtill intent to catch it where it ſtands,
And graſp the ſhining meteor with his *hands*. p. 103.

——' equity and public right demands,
That Thebes ſhould fall by our *avenging hands*. p 110.

Now round the flaming hearth th' aſſembly ſtands,
And Theſeus thus invokes with *lifted hands*. p. 118.

Any bold warrior of the Argive bands,
Againſt a Theban lifts his *hoſtile hands*. ibid.

The chief of Argos, warriors! firſt demands
Funereal honours from our *grateful hands*. p. 123.

As when the ſire of Gods, with *wrathful hand*,
Drives the ſwift light'ning and the forked brand. p. 133.

Him Tydeus lov'd, and in his *faithful hand*,
Had plac'd the ſceptre of ſupreme command. p. 146.

Never; obſequious to thy mad command,
Againſt the foe I'll lift a *hoſtile hand*. p. 150.

The ſcourge of Thebes, whoſe *wide deſtroying hand*
Has thinn'd our armies in their native land. p. 171.

That no bold warrior of the Theban bands,
This maid ſhall violate with *hoſtile hands*. p. 173.

Whoſe feeble age the preſent aid demands,
And kind aſſiſtance of my *filial hands*. p. 179.

——————— by command
The captive violates with *hoſtile hand*. p. 181.

——————— with *vengeful hands*,
He dealt deſtruction 'midſt the Theban bands. ibid.

——————— the bow commands,
And arrows ſacred, from his *mighty hands*. p. 189.

—— round this heart the furies wave their brands,
And wring my entrails with their *burning hands*. p. 199.

——————— Obſequious for your laſt commands,
And tenders to your need his *willing hands*. p. 204.

——————— With an *unrelenting hand*,
Fix, in the bows beneath, a flaming brand. p. 209.

If great Alcides liv'd, her tow'rs ſhould ſtand,
Safe and protected by his *mighty hand*. p. 211.

—— the

——————— the forked brand,
Which for deſtruction arms thy *mighty hand.* p. 233.

——————— In his *mighty hand,*
Brandiſh'd with geſture fierce a burning brand. p. 243.

Myſelf, my daughters, dragg'd by *hoſtile bands,*
Our dignity exchang'd for ſervile bands. p. 266.

Such ſacrifice Caſſandra's ghoſt demands,
And ſuch I'll offer with *determin'd hands.* p. 280.

——————————— and ſtand
A rampart to oppoſe my *vengeful hand.* ibid.

Creon in vain the deſp'rate rout withſtands
With ſharp reproaches and *vindictive hands.* p. 286.

To the foregoing citations we could have added many others of the ſame ſort, (viz. from pages 5, 17, 36, idem, 40, 45, 61, 65, 78, 79, 84, 85, 93, 96, 109, 111, 126, 166, 190, 209, 212, 250, 264, 272, 273, 281;) but theſe are more than ſufficient to convince the critics at George's and the Bedford, that verſes have *hands* as well as *feet.*

Our northern bard frequently ſeems, indeed, at ſome loſs for a variety of language, which has led him into many diſguſtful repetitions. Thus, p. 13, Diomed charges Talthybius

——— to *convene* from tent to tent
The Kings to Eteon's lofty monument.

Where they meet accordingly, p. 15. and Tydides is exhorted,

——— — — — to declare
What cauſe *convenes* the ſenate of the war.
— — — — Tydides thus reply'd,
Princes! I have not now the hoſt *conven'd,*
For ſecrets by intelligence obtain'd.

It is ſaid this poem is a Scotch production; but p. 31, we meet with the following notorious *Londoniſm.*

——— Preſumptuous youth forbear,
To tempt the fury of my flying ſpear.
That warrior *there* was by my javelin ſlain.—

That there, and *this here,* had, doubtleſs, their origin in Cheapſide; but how they found their way down to Scotland, is a myſtery which our Poet is beſt able to unriddle.

Elſewhere, however, our bard ſeems more ſtrongly attracted towards the Hibernian ſhores; particularly where he makes Jupiter apprehenſive leſt Fate ſhould forget to be fatal, and, Harlequin-like, jump down her own throat. To explain this enig-

ma,

ma, we muſt give our Author's own words; for no others can do him equal Juſtice. Jove's meſſenger thus addreſſes Apollo, p. 74.

> Ruler of light! let now thy car deſcend,
> So Jove commands, and night her ſhade extend,
> Elſe Thebes muſt periſh; and *the doom of fate,*
> *Anticipated, have an earlier date,*
> *Than fate decrees:* for, like devouring flame,
> Tydides threatens all the Theban name.

But it is no uncommon thing for this Poet to employ his Celeſtials in a manner ſomewhat incomprehenſible to mere mortal underſtandings. Page 76, War, like a brawling brat, who cries and frets himſelf to ſleep in his cradle, rocks *itſelf* to reſt in much the ſame mood:

> —— the martial clangors ceaſe,
> And war *tumultuous* lulls *itſelf* to peace.

As contending countries and cities ſeverally claimed the honour of having produced the Author of the Iliad, ſo, we foreſee, will various parts of the Britiſh empire contend for that of having given us the Author of the Epigoniad. And as the authority of the Review will, doubtleſs, be quoted, in ſupport of the conjectures and proofs that ſhall in future times be advanced on this occaſion, we have been careful to note our ſeveral obſervations with regard to this matter. England, Ireland, and Scotland have been mentioned; but here comes a line that ſeems to vacate all their claims, and by its gurgling, or turkey-cock ſound, to point out ſome other part of the world, —but whether Wales, or Germany, or the Cape of Good Hope, let the Reader determine. Here it is, taken from p. 114, where Diſcord is deſcribed in her flight from Hell.

> Gliding *meteorous*, like a *ſtream* of *flame*.

But if ſometimes a rumbling line chance to offend the nicer ear, it will meet with more frequent opportunities of *lulling itſelf to peace*, by the help of many a ſoothing couplet, like the following, from p. 134.

> In ev'ry art, my friends! you all excell,
> And each deſerves a prize for *ſhooting well.*

P. 248. —— here, in doubtful poiſe, the battle *hings* *,
Faint is the hoſt, and wounded *half* † the Kings.

Again, page 285.

> Rank above rank the living ſtructure grows,
> As ſettling bees the *pendant heap* compoſe,

* What country word is this? † Preciſely half?

Which

Which in ſome ſhade or vaulted cavern, *hings*,
Woven thick with complicated feet and wings.

If bad rhimes are to be deemed, as ſome think they are, a capital defect, our Author will be capitally convicted on many an indictment in the court of criticiſm. For inſtance, p. 242, we have the following ſtrange couplet

Graceful the goddeſs turn'd, and with a *voice*,
Bold, and ſuperior to the vulgar *noiſe*,
O'er all the field commands.—

The badneſs of the rhyme in the two firſt lines is, however, their ſmalleſt imperfection: Minerva, ſure, will never pardon the *ungraceful* mention he has made of her goddeſſſhip's vociferation; which according to the idea here raiſed, would even ſilence the loudeſt water nymph in the neighbourhood of Thames-ſtreet.

But as it may, and not unreaſonably, be urged, in our Poet's favour, that a few ſingle lines, or couplets, culled from different parts of his work, are by no means to be conſidered as a fair ſpecimen of the whole; we ſhall conclude with his entire deſcription of a ſwimming-match, which, though we have diſapproved his choice of the ſport, will ſhew the Author to ſomewhat more advantage than, poſſibly, the Reader may expect, from the ſamples already produced.

——— With thirſt of glory fir'd,
Crete's valiant monarch to the prize aſpir'd;
With Sparta's younger chief †; Ulyſſes came;
And brave Clearchus, emulous of fame,
A wealthy warrior from the Samian ſhore,
In cattle rich, and heaps of precious ore:
Diſtinguiſh'd in the midſt the heroes ſtood,
Eager to plunge into the ſhining flood.

His brother's ardor purpos'd to reſtrain,
Atrides ſtrove, and counſel'd thus in vain:
Deſiſt, my brother! ſhun th'unequal ſtrife;
For late you ſtood upon the verge of life:
No mortal man his vigor can retain,
When flowing wounds have emptied ev'ry vein.
If now you periſh in the wat'ry way,
Grief upon grief ſhall cloud this mournful day.
Deſiſt, reſpect my counſel, and be wiſe,
Some other Spartan in your place will riſe
To change his brother's purpoſe thus he try'd,
But Menelaus reſolute reply'd:
Brother, in vain you urge me to forbear,
From love and fond affection prompt to fear;

† Menelaus.

For firm as e'er before my limbs remain,
To daſh the fluid waves, or ſcour the plain.

He ſaid, and went before. The heroes move
To the dark covert of a neighbouring grove;
Which to the bank its ſhady walks extends,
Where, mixing with the lake, a riv'let ends.
Prompt to contend, their purple robes they looſe,
Their figur'd veſts, and gold embroider'd *ſhoes*;
And through the grove deſcending to the ſtrand,
Along the flow'ry bank in order ſtand.
As when in ſome fair temple's ſacred ſhrine,
A ſtatue ſtands, expreſs'd by ſkill divine,
Apollo's, or the herald pow'rs, who brings,
Jove's mighty mandates on his airy wings;
The form majeſtic awes the bending crowd:
In port and ſtature ſuch the heroes ſtood.

Starting at once; with equal ſtrokes they ſweep
The ſmooth expanſe, and ſhoot into the deep;
The Cretan chief exerting all his force,
His rivals far ſurpaſs'd, and led the courſe;
Behind, Atrides, emulous of fame;
Clearchus next; and laſt Ulyſſes came.
And now they meaſur'd back the watry ſpace,
And ſaw from far the limits of the *race*.
Ulyſſes then with thirſt of glory fir'd,
The Samian left, and to the prize aſpir'd;
Who, emulous, and dreading to be laſt,
With equal ſpeed the Spartan hero paſs'd.
Alarm'd, the Cretan monarch ſtrove with pain,
His doubtful hopes of conqueſt to maintain;
Exerting ev'ry nerve, his limbs he ply'd,
And wiſhing, from afar the ſhore deſcry'd:
For near and nearer ſtill Ulyſſes preſs'd,
The waves he felt rebounding from his breaſt.
With equal zeal for victory they ſtrove,
When gliding ſudden from the roofs of Jove,
Pallas approach'd; behind a cloud conceal'd,
Ulyſſes only ſaw her form reveal'd.
Majeſtic by the hero's ſide ſhe *ſtood*;
Her ſhining ſandals preſs'd the trembling *flood*.
She whiſper'd ſoft, as when the weſtern breeze,
Stirs the thick reeds, or ſhakes the ruſtling trees:
Still ſhall thy ſoul, with endleſs thirſt of fame,
Aſpire to victory in ev'ry game.
The honours which from bones and ſinews riſe,
Are lightly valu'd by the good and wiſe:
To envy ſtill they rouſe the human kind;
And oft, than courted, better far declin'd.
To brave Idomeneus yield the race,
Contented to obtain the ſecond place.

The

The goodeſs thus: while, ſtretching to the land,
With joy the Cretan chief approach'd the ſtrand;
Ulyſſes next arriv'd, and, ſpent with toil,
The weary Samian graſp'd the welcome ſoil.

But far behind, the Spartan warrior lay,
Fatigu'd and fainting in the watry way.
Thrice ſtruggling from the lake, his head he rear'd;
And thrice imploring aid, his voice was heard.
The Cretan monarch haſtes the youth to ſave,
And Ithacus again divides the wave:
With force renew'd, their manly limbs they ply,
And from their breaſts the whit'ning billows fly.
Full in the midſt a rocky iſle divides,
The liquid ſpace, and parts the ſilver tides;
Once cultivated, now with thickets green
O'erſpread, two hillocks and a vale between.
Here dwelt an aged ſwain; his cottage ſtood
Under the cliffs, encompaſs'd by a wood.
From poverty ſecure, he heard afar,
In peace profound, the tumults of the war.
Mending a net before his rural gate,
From other toils *repos'd*, the peaſant ſat,
When firſt the voice of Menelaus came,
By ev'ning breezes wafted from the ſtream.
He roſe; and, turning whence the voice was heard,
Far ſtruggling in the deep, the youth appear'd.
Haſt'ning, his *ſkiff* he loos'd, and ſpread the ſail,
Some preſent god ſupply'd a proſp'rous gale:
For as the Spartain chief, with toil ſubdu'd,
Hopeleſs of life, was ſinking in the flood;
The ſwain approach'd, and in his *barge* receiv'd
Him ſafe, from danger imminent retriev'd.

Upon a willow's trunk Therſites ſat,
Contempt and laughter fated to create,
Where, bending from a hollow bank, it hung,
And rooted to the mould'ring ſurface clung;
He ſaw Atrides ſafe; and thus aloud,
With leer malign, addreſs'd the liſt'ning croud,
Here on the flow'ry turf a hearth ſhall ſtand;
A hecatomb the fav'ring Gods demand,
Who ſav'd Atrides in this dire debate,
And ſnatch'd the hero from the jaws of fate.
Without his aid, we all might quit the field;
Ulyſſes, Ajax, and Tydides yield:
His mighty arm alone the hoſt defends,
But dire diſaſter ſtill the chief attends:
Laſt ſun beheld him vanquiſh'd on the plain;
Then warriors ſav'd him, now a ſhepherd ſwain.
Defend him ſtill from perſecuting fate!
Protect the hero who protects the ſtate;

Guard

Guard him amidſt the dangers of the war;
And when he ſwims, let aid be never far!
He ſaid, and ſcorn and laughter to excite,
His features foul he writh'd, with envious ſpite,
Smiling contempt, and pleas'd his rancrous heart
With aiming thus oblique a venom'd dart.
But joy'd not long; for ſoon the faithleſs wood,
Strain'd from the root, reſign'd him to the flood.
Plunging and ſputt'ring, as his arms he ſpread,
A load of ſoil came thund'ring on his head,
Slipt from the bank: along the winding ſhore,
With laughter loud he heard the ecchoes roar,
When from the lake his crooked form he rear'd,
With horror pale, with blotting clay beſmear'd:
Then clamb'ring by the trunk in ſad diſmay,
Which, half immers'd, with all its branches lay,
Confounded, to the tents he ſkulk'd along,
Amidſt the ſhouts and inſults of the throng.

If any ſhould imagine, that we have been rather ſevere upon this Author, let it be obſerved in our excuſe, that his preſumptuous attack of ſo ſuperior a character as that of the late Mr. Pope, has juſtly diveſted him of all title to favour: read the following extract from his preface *.

'The language [of the Epigoniad] is ſimple and artleſs. '*This I take to be a beauty rather than a defect:* for it gives an 'air of antiquity to the work, and makes the ſtyle more ſuitable 'to the ſubject. *The quaintneſs of Mr. Pope's expreſſion, in his 'tranſlation of the Iliad and Odyſſey, is not at all ſuitable either 'to the antiquity, or majeſtic gravity of his author, and contributes 'more to make his fable appear vain and abſurd, than any circum-'ſtance that ſeems of ſo little moment could eaſily be ſuppoſed to do.*

He muſt be a taſteleſs critic, indeed, who could remain unmoved, after peruſing ſo dogmatical a ſentence, pronounced by *ſuch a poet*, upon SUCH A GENIUS!

* This preface, however, upon the whole, ſhews the author to be a man of more reading and taſte than his Poem ſpeaks him; and had he publiſhed that diſcourſe without the Epigoniad, and committed the latter to the flames, his reputation would have ſuſtained no loſs on that account.

Odes

ODES. *By Mr.* Gray. 4to. 1s. Dodſley.

AS this publication ſeems deſigned for thoſe who have formed their taſte by the models of antiquity, the generality of Readers cannot be ſuppoſed adequate Judges of its merit; nor will the Poet, it is preſumed, be greatly diſappointed if he finds them backward in commending a performance not entirely ſuited to their apprehenſions. We cannot, however, without ſome regret behold thoſe talents ſo capable of giving pleaſure to all, exerted in efforts that, at beſt, can amuſe only the few; we cannot behold this riſing Poet ſeeking fame among the learned, without hinting to him the ſame advice that Iſocrates uſed to give his Scholars, *Study the People*. This ſtudy it is that has conducted the great Maſters of antiquity up to immortality. Pindar himſelf, of whom our modern Lyriſt is an imitator, appears entirely guided by it. He adapted his works exactly to the diſpoſitions of his countrymen. Irregular enthuſiaſtic, and quick in tranſition,—he wrote for a people inconſtant, of warm imaginations, and exquiſite ſenſibility. He choſe the moſt popular ſubjects, and all his alluſions are to cuſtoms well known, in his days, to the meaneſt perſon*.

His Engliſh Imitator wants thoſe advantages. He ſpeaks to a people not eaſily impreſſed with new ideas; extremely tenacious of the old; with difficulty warmed; and as ſlowly cooling again.—How unſuited then to our national character is that ſpecies of poetry which riſes upon us with unexpected flights! Where we muſt haſtily catch the thought, or it flies from us; and, in ſhort, where the Reader muſt largely partake of the Poet's enthuſiaſm, in order to taſte his beauties. To carry the parallel a little farther; the Greek Poet wrote in a language the moſt proper that can be imagined for this ſpecies of compoſition; lofty, harmonious, and never needing rhyme to heighten the numbers. But, for us, ſeveral unſucceſsful experiments ſeem to prove that the Engliſh cannot have Odes in blank Verſe; while, on the other hand, a natural imperfection attends thoſe which are compoſed in irregular rhymes:—the ſimilar ſound often recurring where it is not expected, and not being found where it is, creates no ſmall confuſion to the Reader,—who, as we have not ſeldom obſerved, beginning in all the ſolemnity of

* The beſt Odes of Pindar are ſaid to be thoſe which have been deſtroyed by time; and even they were ſeldom recited among the Greeks, without the adventitious ornaments of muſic and dancing. Our Lyric Odes are ſeldom ſet off with theſe advantages, which, trifling as they ſeem, have alone given immortality to the works of Quinault.

poetic

poetic elocution, is by frequent diſappointments of the rhyme, at laſt obliged to drawl out the uncomplying numbers into diſagreeable proſe.

It is, by no means, our deſign to detract from the merit of our Author's preſent attempt: we would only intimate, that an Engliſh Poet,—one whom the Muſe has *mark'd for her own*, could produce a more luxuriant bloom of flowers, by cultivating ſuch as are natives of the ſoil, than by endeavouring to force the exotics of another climate: or, to ſpeak without a metaphor, ſuch a genius as Mr. Gray might give greater pleaſure, and acquire a larger portion of fame, if, inſtead of being an imitator, he did juſtice to his talents, and ventured to be more an original. Theſe two Odes, it muſt be confeſſed, breath much of the ſpirit of Pindar, but then they have caught the ſeeming obſcurity, the ſudden tranſition, and hazardous epithet, of his mighty maſter; all which, though evidently intended for beauties, will, probably, be regarded as blemiſhes, by the generality of his Readers. In ſhort, they are in ſome meaſure, a repreſentation of what Pindar now appears to be, though perhaps, not what he appeared to the States of Greece, when they rivalled each other in his applauſe, and when Pan himſelf was ſeen dancing to his melody.

In conformity to the antients, theſe Odes conſiſt of the *Strophe*, *Antiſtrophe*, and *Epode*, which, in each Ode, are thrice repeated. The Strophes have a correſpondent reſemblance in their ſtructure and numbers: and the Antiſtrophe and Epode alſo bear the ſame ſimilitude. The Poet ſeems, in the firſt Ode particularly, to deſign the Epode as a complete air to the Strophe and Antiſtrophe, which have more the appearance of Recitative. There was a neceſſity for theſe diviſions among the antients, for they ſerved as directions to the dancer and muſician; but we ſee no reaſon why they ſhould be continued among the moderns; for, inſtead of aſſiſting, they will but perplex the Muſician, as our muſic requires a more frequent tranſition from the Air to the Recitative than could agree with the ſimplicity of the antients.

The firſt of theſe Poems celebrates the Lyric Muſe. It ſeems the moſt laboured performance of the two, but yet we think its merit is not equal to that of the ſecond. It ſeems to want that regularity of plan upon which the ſecond is founded; and though it abounds with images that ſtrike, yet, unlike the ſecond, it contains none that are affecting.

In the ſecond Antiſtrophe the Bard thus marks the progreſs of Poetry.

In

II.

In climes beyond the ſolar road,
Where ſhaggy forms o'er ice-built mountains roam,
The Muſe has broke the twilight-gloom
To cheer the ſhivering natives dull abode.
And oft beneath the od'rous ſhade
Of Chili's boundleſs foreſts laid,
She deigns to hear the ſavage youth repeat,
In looſe numbers wildly ſweet
Their feather-cinctured Chiefs, and duſky loves.
Her track, where'er the Goddeſs roves,
Glory purſue, and generous ſhame,
Th' unconquerable Mind, and Freedom's holy flame.

There is great ſpirit in the irregularity of the numbers towards the concluſion of the foregoing ſtanza.

II. 3.

Woods, that wave o'er Delphi's ſteep,
Iſles, that crown th' Egean deep,
Fields, that cool Iliſſus laves,
Or where Mæander's amber waves
In lingering lab'rinths creep,
How do your tuneful Echoes languiſh,
Mute, but to the voice of Anguiſh?
Where each old poetic mountain
Inſpiration breath'd around:
Ev'ry ſhade and hollow'd fountain,
Murmur'd deep a ſolemn ſound:
Till the ſad Nine in Greece's evil hour
Left their Parnaſſus for the Latian plains.
Alike they ſcorn the pomp of tyrant-power,
And coward Vice, that revels in her chains,
When Latium had her lofty ſpirit loſt,
They ſought, oh Albion! next thy ſea-encircled coaſt.

III. 2.

Far from the ſun and ſummer-gale,
In thy green lap was Nature's darling laid,
What time, where lucid Avon ſtray'd,
To him the mighty mother did unveil
Her awful face: The dauntleſs child
Stretch'd forth his little arms, and ſmil'd.
This pencil take, ſhe ſaid, whoſe colours clear,
Richly paint the vernal year:
Thine too theſe golden keys, immortal boy!
This can unlock the gates of Joy;
Of Horror that, and thrilling Fears,
Or ope the ſacred ſource of ſympathetic tears.

The ſecond 'Ode is founded on a tradition current in Wales, 'that Edward the firſt, when he compleated the conqueſt of 'that country, ordered all the Bards that fell into his hands to 'be put to death.' The Author ſeems to have taken the hint of this ſubject from the fifteenth Ode of the firſt book of Horace. Our Poet introduces the only ſurviving Bard of that country in concert with the ſpirits of his murdered brethren, as propheticallly denouncing woes upon the Conqueror and his poſterity. The circumſtances of grief and horror in which the Bard is repreſented, thoſe of terror in the preparation of the votive web, and the myſtic obſcurity with which the prophecies are delivered, will give as much pleaſure to thoſe who reliſh this ſpecies of compoſition, as any thing that has hitherto appeared in our language, the Odes of Dryden himſelf not excepted.

I. 2.

On a rock, whoſe haughty brow
Frowns o'er old Conway's foaming flood,
Rob'd in the ſable garb of Woe,
With haggard eyes the Poet ſtood;
(Looſe his beard and hoary hair
Stream'd, like a meteor, to the troubled air)
And with a maſter's hand, and prophet's fire,
Struck the deep ſorrows of his lyre.
'Hark how each giant-oak, and deſart cave,
'Sighs to the torrent's awful voice beneath!
'O'er thee, O King! their hundred arms they wave,
'Revenge on thee in hoarſer murmers breath;
'Vocal no more, ſince Cambria's fatal day,
'To high-born Hoel's harp, or ſoft Llewellyn's lay.

I. 3.

'Cold is Cadwallo's tongue,
'That hush'd the ſtormy main:
'Brave Urien ſleeps upon his craggy bed:
'Mountains, ye mourn in vain
'Modred, whoſe magic ſong
'Made huge Plinlimmon bow his cloud-top'd head.
'On dreary Arvon's ſhore they lie,
'Smear'd with gore, and ghaſtly pale:
'Far, far aloof th' affrighted ravens ſail;
'The famiſhed eagle ſcreams, and paſſes by.
'Dear loſt companions of my tuneful art,
'Dear, as the light that viſits theſe ſad eyes,
'Dear, as the ruddy drops that warm my heart,
'Ye died amidſt your dying country's cries——
'No more I weep. They do not ſleep.
'On yonder cliffs, a grieſly band,
'I ſee them ſit, they linger yet,
'Avengers of their native land:

With

' With me in dreadful harmony they join,
' And weave with bloody hands the tiſſue of thy line.

II. 1.

" Weave the warp, and weave the woof,
" The winding-ſheet of Edward's race.
" Give ample room, and verge enough,
" The characters of hell to trace."—

When the prophetic incantation is finiſhed, the Bard thus nervouſly concludes.

' Enough for me: with joy I ſee
' The different doom our fates aſſign.
' Be thine deſpair, and ſcept'red care,
' To triumph, and to die, are mine.'
He ſpoke, and headlong from the mountain's height
Deep in the roaring tide he plung'd to endleſs night.

To the AUTHORS *of the* MONTHLY REVIEW.

On the Death of M. de Fontenelle.
(From Freron's Journal.)

THE celebrated M. de Fontenelle has lately finiſhed a *long* and illuſtrious life. He was born at Rouen the 11th of February, 1657, and died at Paris the 9th of January, 1757. In order to form a proper judgment of his merit, it may not be amiſs to conſider him as the Genius of the French Academy, and as Secretary to the Academy of Sciences. In the former view, his bold dereliction of the antients, the abſtractedneſs of his ideas, the ſubtilty of his reflections, his too curious reſearches into the more inviſible ſprings of the human heart, the embarraſſment of his language, the epigrammatical turn of his phraſes, and, if the expreſſion may be allowed, the refined policy of his ſtile, did not procure him many admirers among people of true taſte. His Plurality of Words, his Dialogues of the Dead, his Letters from the Chevalier d' Her***, his Eclogues, his Comedies, are undoubtedly very ingenious performances, but they abound with an affectation, and a falſe brilliance, that renders them diſagreeable, eſpecially to thoſe who are converſant with the real beauties, and elegant ſimplicity, ſo ſtriking, and ſo charming, in the principal works of the Greeks and Romans: can it then be wondered at, that Mr. de Fontenelle found himſelf expoſed to the cenſure of Deſpreaux, Racine, Rouſſeau, and to the criticiſms of Bruyere, Rollin,

Desfontaines, &c. all zealous defenders of antiquity, and very competent judges? They all looked upon him as a dangerous innovator in points of learning and literary taſte. What, indeed, has been the conſequence with thoſe Writers who have been tempted to imitate him? Inſtead of following their own genius, which, perhaps, would have happily conducted them, they have endeavoured to tread in his ſteps, and they have thereby been miſled.

As Secretary of the Academy of Sciences, M. de Fontenelle merits our utmoſt reſpects. He exerciſed this employment, during forty years, with the higheſt and moſt deſerved reputation. His truly learned, truly uſeful Hiſtory of that body, is univerſally acknowleged as a work of the firſt rank. It is juſtly admired for the regularity, preciſion, and perſpicuity of the extracts; the neatneſs with which it is conceived, the clearneſs of the ſtile, and the method whereby the moſt abſtracted ſubjects are reconciled to the capacities of leſs intelligent Readers.

What cannot enough be praiſed in M. de Fontenelle, is, his conſiſtency of character, decency of manners, and politeneſs of behaviour; his being always able to maintain the good opinion of the great world, his particular talent of rendering himſelf pleaſing to the fair ſex, the delicacy and gallantry of his wit, which readily furniſhed him with thoſe agreeable nothings, thoſe ſmart repartees, thoſe lively jeſts, that are rarely obſerved to come from a ſtudious man. The great Corneille, his uncle, had not theſe graces and accompliſhments. The nephew rendered Letters equally amiable and reſpectable. By his conduct he defeated the prejudices raiſed againſt learning by the ill behaviour of many Authors, who, both in their actions and their writings, ſeem to have regarded neither the public, nor themſelves, nor their profeſſion.

Both the eſteem, and the long life, that M. de Fontenelle enjoyed, may be aſcribed, at leaſt in part, to his own wiſdom. The paſſions that delight, torment, diſgrace, and abridge our exiſtenee, had no command over him. He neither fell a ſacrifice to the flames of love, the firebrands of hatred, the ſnakes of envy, the dæmon of play, the ardour of ſtudy, nor the poiſon of melancholy. He was a practical Philoſopher, a Sage, whoſe tranquil ſoul was undiſturbed by any violent ſhocks. He had his ſettled hours for ſleep, for waking, for buſineſs, for nouriſhment, and for amuſements. He had betimes traced, as it were, a circle, the degrees of which he regularly travelled through, without ever deviating. He ſeems to have formed to himſelf a particular ſyſtem, upon the general ſyſtem of thoſe globes that roll over our heads, and under

der our feet, and which, in their courſes, obſerve a conſtant and regular order.—Perhaps it may be the deſign of Nature, that all animal beings, which are but ſo many little worlds, ſhould regulate themſelves upon the plan of the grand machine of the univerſe, which would very ſoon be deſtroyed ſhould it ſwerve from its eſtabliſhed laws. But whatever there may be in this opinion, it does not appear a very extraordinary thing, that with ſo much circumſpection and regularity, M. de Fontenelle, born alſo with a good, tho' not the moſt robuſt, conſtitution, ſhould have lived to ſee a COMPLEAT CENTURY.

A Letter to the Right Honourable the Lord B——y. Being an Enquiry into the Merit of his Defence of Minorca. 8vo. 1s. May.

THE Author of this Letter opens his addreſs to the Lord B——y, with a profeſſion, that he is not led to an enquiry into the merits of his Lordſhip's defence of Minorca, by any private diſguſts; and then proceeds in the following words.

'I do not now, my Lord, condemn, or even accuſe you: 'All that I ſuppoſe at preſent, is, that it is poſſible at leaſt, that 'your conduct may have been blameable. If that ſhould have 'been the caſe, what muſt be the ſentiments of thoſe younger 'Officers who ſerved under you; when after having ſeen you 'neglect thoſe attentions which a good Governor ought to 'have, they come home and find you applauded by the whole 'nation for your defence?

'Should they think theſe applauſes juſt, they muſt be con'firmed in the moſt dangerous miſtakes; which in ſome fu'ture ſiege may have a very fatal influence on their own beha'viour; and they may afterwards plead your bad conduct as a 'precedent, by which to juſtify their own neglect of their du'ty. If, on the other hand, they ſhould be ſenſible of your 'defects, and inwardly laugh at thoſe public honours which 'they know you never merited; yet what a diſcouragement is 'this to every noble arm to deſerve well of the public by true 'bravery and right conduct; to ſee thoſe who have behaved ill, 'meet with a more general applauſe, and rewarded with greater 'honour, than thoſe who have behaved well.'

Having premiſed theſe general motives, he purſues the enquiry, which conſiſts of a number of charges. 1ſt. That Lord B——y was pleaſed to make the following declaration:

" That it is the duty of a Governor to remain in one fixt " place, to receive his intelligence: he has his people to ſend " out for intelligence, and is to remain there to give his or- " ders. And, if from curioſity he goes out to the outworks, " it is impoſſible to ſay what length of time it may be before " he may be wanted. As he remains there, he can know no- " thing but what he receives from others: and I took no mi- ' nutes to have recourſe to: therefore what I have declared is to be underſtood only as matter of hearſay."

The Letter-Writer firſt controverts the poſition here laid down by his Lordſhip, " that a Governor ſhould remain in a " fixed place;" then he proceeds to prove the neceſſity of a Governor's keeping a Journal of the ſiege: and, in both caſes, ſupports his arguments by authorities.

2. That his Lordſhip did not order the houſes to be pulled down which ſtood contiguous to the outworks. 3. That he fatigued his ſoldiers with unneceſſary duties, which might have been diſcharged by the Minorquins as well. 4. That he neglected to ſpoil the roads, and drive off the cattle. 5. That he ordered the ſoldiers to knock off the heads of the wine hogſheads, and throw away the wine, for the ſake of taking the empty caſk, to fill them with earth; by which thoughtleſs improvidence the men were reduced to the ſcanty allowance of half a pint a day. 6. That he imprudently left the corn-mills ſtanding and entire. 7. That he omitted to put the ramparts, and other works, in proper repair. 8. That he ſurrendered without any apparent good reaſon for capitulation.

The Author enlarges upon theſe ſeveral charges of his Lordſhip's ſuppoſed miſconduct, particularly on the laſt, concerning the ſurrender: Of which, he ſays, ' That as great as the miſ- ' fortune was of loſing the Queen's Redoubt, (which, as he ' ſeems to think, might have been prevented) yet the loſs of an ' *outwork* was never yet thought a ſufficient reaſon for ſurren- ' dering a place before a breach was made, or a ſingle cannon ' erected to batter in breach.—That the principal difficulty of ' a ſiege, has hitherto been always reckoned the ſtorming of ' the Counterſcarp—And that till the Counterſcarp is taken, there ' is no approaching the Ditch, or battering in breach.' He likewiſe takes notice, that if the defence of Minorca was a juſt one, it was attended with a miraculous circumſtance in the preſervation of the men; for that there is ſcarce an inſtance of a town's being well defended, where at leaſt a quarter, commonly a third, often a half, of the garriſon are not diſabled during the ſiege.

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The juſtice of this Enquiry depends on the truth of the facts on which it is founded. The Author, however, has drawn his inferences from the facts he has ſtated, with great temper, and, with an appearance at leaſt, of candour. Wherever he has laid down any general principles of duty, he has cited authorities in confirmation of his doctrine: and, upon the whole, as he appears to be no incompetent Engineer; we muſt likewiſe do him the juſtice to acknowlege, that he has acquitted himſelf with credit, as a Writer.

A full Anſwer to an infamous Libel, intitled, A Letter to the Right Honourable the Lord B——y, &c. *To which is prefixed, an exact Plan of Fort St. Philip's, with proper References.* 8vo. 1s. Reeve.

THE Anſwerer ſets out with great warmth and indignation, accuſing the Author of the Letter * to Lord B—y, of miſrepreſentation; and want of candour. With regard to the firſt charge, exhibited by the Letter-Writer againſt his Lordſhip, the Anſwerer takes notice, that it is far from the character of a candid writer, to extract Lord B——y's evidence on Mr. Byng's trial, from the account publiſhed by Mr. Cooke; when he knew that one was *publiſhed by Authority*, under the care of Mr. Fearn, the Judge-Advocate; wherein his Lordſhip's declaration is worded in a very different manner, as follows:

"I beg leave, ſays Lord B——y, to obſerve to the Court, "that it is the duty of a Governor to abide in one conſtant "fixed place: For otherwiſe if he was to go *out of curioſity* to "view any of the outworks, it *might be* a long time before he "might be found ſhould he be wanted: Therefore he muſt de- "pend on the reports of others: And *I have not been allowed to* "*make uſe of Minutes.*"

It is obſervable, that both theſe accounts agree as to his Lordſhip's declaration, "that it is the duty of a Governor to remain "in one fixed place." And the Anſwerer contents himſelf with ſaying,—"That it cannot be doubted, but that his Lordſhip

* The Reader, by referring to our account of that Letter, will ſee the abſtract of the ſeveral Charges exhibited againſt his Lordſhip; and by cloſely attending to them, will be better able to determine the merits of the preſent conteſt.

'when he delivered himſelf thus to the Court-Martial, had a 'view to his own particular caſe. For that as there was not 'one Colonel to take the chief command, in caſe of an acci- 'dent, it would have been highly imprudent to expoſe a life, of 'ſo great conſequence, through *vain curioſity*, or in doing that 'which might be, and he took care was, *effectually* performed 'by proper Officers.'

But we cannot help obſerving, that his Lordſhip has laid down this general rule of duty, in terms of too great a latitude, to be taken in the reſtrictive ſenſe the Anſwerer contends for; and if it is admitted, that a Governor ought not to be conſtantly *ſtationary*, but that, on the contrary, he *ought to go the rounds, and view the outworks*, which the Letter-Writer has attempted to prove from ſeveral authorities not controverted by the Anſwer, then the Anſwerer cannot be juſtified in calling the exerciſe of ſuch duty, a *vain curioſity:* neither in that caſe, can the importance of his Lordſhip's life, be allowed as an excuſe for the neglect of ſuch a general rule of duty. A General who neglects his duty, *is dead*, as a Commander; and it would be leſs diſhonourable to loſe a place for *want* of Officers, than through the negligence of thoſe who command. The Anſwerer, indeed, takes upon him to affirm, that his Lordſhip 'took care that 'the duty *was effectually* performed by proper Officers.' But it is not eaſy to conceive, how he could be aſſured of the effectual performance of that, which he never looked to himſelf; though it is conſidered as an indiſpenſable part of his duty, to have been particularly attentive to it.

The Reader will obſerve, that the chief difference between the two accounts, is in the latter part, which relates to the *taking Minutes*. Which, as it ſtands in the trial publiſhed by Authority, entirely overthrows that part of the charge againſt his Lordſhip.

We ſhall, for the ſake of brevity, paſs over the other charges, which are either abſolutely contradicted, or ſtudiouſly juſtified; and proceed to the laſt, and moſt material one, which concerns the ſurrendery. The Letter-Writer has cenſured his Lordſhip for ſurrendering the place, only upon the loſs of an outwork; before a breach was made, or even the Counterſcarp taken: he brings inſtances of vigorous defences even after breaches made; and of Officers who have loſt their lives for ſurrendering without a breach, or lodgment made in the Counterſcarp.

To this, the Anſwerer has oppoſed only general juſtifications, which do not appear to be altogether ſatisfactory. The moſt material one is, 'That the Gentlemen of the Council of War, 'as well as the Officers of Artillery, and the Captains, ſigned

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'their opinion, that the garriſon was not in a condition to ſuſ-
'tain another general attack.' But, perhaps, this reſolution may be thought ſomewhat extraordinary, as the Anſwerer, by his ſilence, has admitted that the Counterſcarp was not taken; and that till then there is no approaching the Ditch, or battering in breach. As to the ſtreſs which the Anſwerer lays upon Marſhal de Richlieu's acknowlegement of the brave defence of the Governor and Garriſon, it can have no weight whatever; and ought only to be conſidered as a compliment which the Marſhal paid to his own conduct and courage. This conſtruction will appear the more natural, as the Anſwerer takes notice, that the Marſhal was alarmed by a report, that Marſhal Belliſle was expected to come, and take the command out of his hand: therefore it is reaſonable to ſuppoſe, that Marſhal Richlieu would exaggerate the merit of the defence made againſt him, to obviate any imputation of miſconduct in himſelf.

We have dwelt the longer on this article, becauſe we apprehend the ſubject to be of a very intereſting nature; not only with regard to the honour of the noble Commander, but with reſpect to the public in general. Nothing contributes more to the good of the ſervice, and the glory of the nation, than the *juſt* diſtribution of military rewards and puniſhments: and, though we do not preſume to intimate, that his Lordſhip's honours are unmerited, yet our impartiality obliges to acknowlege, that, from the preſent ſtate of the caſe, his conduct, in ſome particulars, ſeems to be exceptionable;—but we chuſe to ſuſpend our final judgment, in hopes of ſeeing ſome more ſatisfactory Vindication.—This at preſent under our view, is, by no means, what the title imports, A FULL *Anſwer.* An invective acrimony, throughout, ſupplies the place of cool argument; the Author's arrangement of his matter is irregular; his method of reaſoning unconnected; and his ſtile coarſe. In ſhort, when compared with his Antagoniſt, he appears, in every reſpect, to be—*Impar Congreſſus.*

De Venis Lymphaticis valvuloſis et Earum in primis origine. Auctore Alexandro Monro, *Jun. M. D. & Prof. Anat. Edinb.* Berolini Impr. Chriſtianus Frideric. Henningius, Typographus Regis. 1757. 8vo. pages 59.

IT has been a received opinion, from a variety of reaſonings and experiments, that the Lymphatics, in general, were compoſed of veins and arteries derived from, and anaſtomoſing with,

with, the blood veſſels. The Author, however, of this little treatiſe ventures to differ from moſt Writers on this ſubject, calls in queſtion the exiſtence of Lymphatic Arteries, denies any ſuch communication with the blood veſſels, and from a repetition of thoſe very experiments that were ſuppoſed to confirm the eſtabliſhed doctrine, undertakes to prove that they are merely a ſyſtem of abſorbent veins. Let, for example, quickſilver be ſlowly injected into an artery, it will paſs, without touching the Lymphatics, into the veins appropriated to the red blood; let theſe laſt be tied, tho' the force of the Mercury be increaſed till it burſt the veſſels, it will never penetrate into the Cells and Lymphatic veins without effuſion; but when thus effuſed, or even poured into thoſe cells, we ſhall ſoon perceive the Lymphatics filled with it. Hence he diſtruſted, and was induced more nearly to examine, the ſeveral experiments made by anatomical Authors. Afterwards collecting and comparing theſe with each other, he employed his enquiries more particularly to aſcertain why the Lymphatics are ſupplied with ſo many valves, in parts of the body where the other veins have none? Why they are ſo much expoſed to external preſſure? Why infections of any kind, eſpecially the Venereal, applied to different parts of our frame, ſhould, in particular, ſo frequently fix on thoſe conglobate glands ſituated between the heart and the part at which it is received? and why not on thoſe of a ſimilar ſtructure lying more remote? Such is the plan and deſign of this Eſſay.

From page 4 to 8, he exhibits a view of the various opinions, and great uncertainty, of ſeveral celebrated Anatomiſts, in regard to the origin, uſe, and ſtructure of the Lymphatics. He proceeds next (from page 9 to 21) to conſider, and invalidate, ſome hypothetical reaſonings concerning the deſign of their valvular ſtructure; and to point out, from ſeveral arguments, their true nature and uſe. 'Hinc valvularum ingens in Venis Lymphaticis 'numerus indicare videtur, vaſa hæc haud ab Arteriis reflexis 'efformari, venarum vero inhalantium Syſtema eſſe, in quibus 'humores atunicarum ſuarum contractionibus et a vicinarum 'preſſione cor verſus urgentur; non autem a cordis energia a 'tergo prementis progreſſum ſuum imprimis derivare.'

From page 22 to 43, he gives a particular detail of experiments made by different Authors, and by himſelf; from which he deduces the following inference.

'Circumſpectis Experimentis & Argumentis variis pro Ar-'teriis Lymphaticis Venis Lymphaticis valvuloſis reſpondenti-'bus, rationibuſque ſubductis, ſententiam hanc iis non tantum, 'non ſtabiliri; ſed et hæc etiam eas abſorbere, haud levem ſuſ-'picionem injicere, oſtendere operam dedimus.

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The Doctor next endeavours to prove, from the obſervations of Nuck and Cowper themſelves, joined with thoſe of others, that the Lymphatics perform the office of abſorbents, in many parts of the body; conſequently, that, from analogy, we may conclude, that they every where do the ſame. The caſe of a Lady, in whom the ſtimulus of a bliſter applied to the head, more than once occaſioned a tumefaction of the glands of the neck, is not incurious. Laſtly, he gives us, drawn by way of corollaries, ſome practical remarks, which, tho' not entirely new, are nevertheleſs uſeful and amuſing.

We would, however, caution againſt a practice, which he ſeems to recommend, namely, the exciſion of the Inguinal glands in the beginning of a venereal Bubo: This, tho' a ſuppoſed improvement of ſome modern Practitioners, we cannot but think highly cruel, dangerous, and uncertain.

He finiſhes with informing us, how he might have enlarged this treatiſe with ſome further obſervations on the Lymphatic Veſſels and Glands, the Lacteals and Conglobate Glands, delineations of which he had cauſed to be engraved, but was prevented from publiſhing by want of time.—Upon the whole, the ſtyle of this pamphlet is not inelegant; the reaſoning is ingenious; and tho' the ſubject, perhaps, may not be of the higheſt conſequence to mankind, it diſcovers, at leaſt, the Author's early and happy turn to anatomical diſquiſitions.

Apologie du Sentiment de Monſieur le Chevalier Newton, ſur l' Ancienne Chronologie des Grécs. Contenant des Réponſes à toutes les Objections qui y ont été faites jusqu' à préſent. Par Monſ. le Chevalier S———t. A Francfort ſur le Mein. Chez Jean Bernard Eichenberg. L'ainé, 1757. (i. e.)

An Apology for Sir Iſaac Newton's Opinion of the Ancient Chronology of the Greeks; containing Anſwers to all the Objections that have hitherto been made to it. By the Chevalier S———t. 4to. 5s. Printed at Frankfort on the Main. 1757; and ſold by Millar in London. Pages 164, beſides a number of Chronological Tables.

SUCH of our Readers as are not unacquainted with the ſubject, commencement, and conduct of the diſpute which gave riſe to this work, will readily allow the neceſſity of prefixing a ſummary ſtate of the matter of it, in order to the giving an idea of the ſcope and tendency of the Author's performance.

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It is well known, that a ſurreptitious copy of Sir Iſaac Newton's treatiſe on the Ancient Chronology, was prematurely publiſhed, without his conſent; and what was yet more cruel, without his corrections and finiſhings. Sir Iſaac's manuſcript, it ſeems, had, in its unfiniſhed ſtate, been truſted to the late Queen, by whom it was communicated to the Abbé Conti, who, in haſtening to give it to the public, at once betrayed the confidence of the Queen, and did the Author one of thoſe injuries which are hardeſt to be forgiven, that of publiſhing his work at ſuch a diſadvantage to him. Yet, with all its imperfections, this laſt production of that vaſt and creative Genius, was conſidered as containing as great and bold a diſcovery in Chronology, that branch of literature ſo eſſential to Hiſtory, as any made by him in Aſtronomy, or Optics.

In order to eſtabliſh, with exactneſs, the Chronology of the firſt ages of Greece, in which there has ever been a great want of authentic monuments to ſerve for guides, Sir Iſaac computes by the generations of mankind, and by the reigns of Kings; which being rated according to the true length of generations and reigns in our days, bring us much nearer the truth, than calculations of the ſame nature made by the firſt Chronologers. He felt, however, the unſurmountable difficulties that offer themſelves, in clearing up the Chronology of a time already elapſed, in which the keeping of any records had been totally neglected, and which was left without any fixed rule to direct the operation of the calculation. We run no longer, it is true, the ſame riſks; and the Eras which the induſtry of man has ſince invented, are to us a faithful meaſure, and a guide, which conduct us by roads equally ſure and clear, to the true ſucceſſion of things paſt; but theſe ſame Eras being of a later invention than the times on which the preſent diſcuſſion turns, can throw back no light on them. Their effect does not extend beyond the Epoch of their birth, and can have no force, but for the times that follow them, and are, as one may ſay, ſubordinate to them. Sir Iſaac perceiving that the induſtry of man furniſhed him with nothing whereon to reſt his eveſtigations, found out other guides. It was from the womb of nature itſelf that he drew his lights. There it was, that in default of Eras, and Epochs, he diſcovered a rule to conduct him through thoſe depths of obſcurity. This rule was the common duration of Generations, of reigns of Kings, and the courſe of the Stars. The Egyptians, according to Herodotus, had, many ages before, made uſe of a ſupputation by reigns to fix their Chronology; and the Greeks afterwards had probably received from them the ſame method of calculation. In this they were right; it was the only expedient they had to take. But neither

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the one nor the other could make a juſt application of it; from their falſly imagining that the reigns of Kings were to be reckoned as long as the common generations, which they rightly enough eſtimated on the foot of thirty-three years. Not having then diſcerned the proportion which the courſe of nature has put between the durations of reigns and of generations, found by Sir Iſaac to be as nineteen to thirty-three, they founded their calculations upon a falſe principle, which could not fail of producing an error, and of lengthening the periods beyond the truth, nearly in the proportion of thirty-three to nineteen. This is the ſpring-head of their error in this point, and the cauſe of that falſe antiquity the Greeks attributed to ſeveral of their kingdoms. There would, however, be more room than there is for being ſurprized that two ſuch nations as the Egyptians and Greeks, ſo juſtly renowned over the whole earth, for their knowlege and penetration, ſhould not have diſcovered, that the duration of a reign ought to be commonly ſhorter than that of a generation, if one did not ſee in our days men of learning ſtill confound thoſe very things, and obſtinately determining them to be equal, in ſpite of all Sir Iſaac's efforts to free them from that error, and to give them a clear apprehenſion of his ſentiment.

Sir Iſaac has adopted the principles of the Egyptians, and of the firſt Greek Chronologers, and like them, has computed the number of years in the ancient kingdoms by the number of reigns; but in allotting them a *ſhorter* duration, he has drawn a different conſequence. In the firſt place, he has thereby rectified the errors into which the antients had fallen, with reſpect to the duration of the reigns of Kings. He afterwards did more. By an aſtronomical calculation, with which his profound knowlege in that ſcience furniſhed him, he has confirmed, and demonſtratively proved, that which by the application of his firſt principle had acquired only a great degree of probability. With the help of theſe two rules he found the means of determining the length of thoſe periods in which no records had been kept; and, conſequently, has eſtabliſhed two general principles, from whence if we take our departure, in matters of Chronology, he ſuppoſes, there is no danger of making any conſiderable aberration.

The *firſt Principle* of his Chronology, is, That if a knowlege may be obtained of the number of generations that have exiſted from father to ſon, or how many reigns, or ſucceſſions of Kings, have elapſed from any given point of time in antiquity to another, *provided* that the number ſhall be a competent one, that is to ſay, conſiderable enough to ground an eſtimate upon it,—one may nearly determine the ſpace of time that

that ſhall have elapſed within that interval. *Second Principle.* On diſcovering what was the poſition of the Equinoctial and Solſtitial Points, with reſpect to the Fixed Stars, in any determinate time in antiquity, it will be eaſy to know by the preſent actual poſition of the ſame cardinal points, the diſtance between our days and that remote time; becauſe the cardinal points move retrograde upon the conſtellations of the Zodiac, one degree in ſeventy-two years.

Theſe are the fundamental principles of Sir Iſaac's ſyſtem of Chronology; and theſe are the principles which have been attacked, and which are here defended by the Chevalier S——t: who has alſo very judiciouſly ſhewn, that the certainty of Sir Iſaac's ſyſtem depends not on theſe two principles alone. But what ſtrengthens its probability, to as great a degree as can be expected in ſo obſcure a point, is that happy conciliation of it with hiſtorical facts, which is owing to the juſtneſs of thoſe principles of which it is a conſequence, whilſt the perfect agreement of the events of hiſtory, prove in its turn, the truth of thoſe principles. The principles, and their conſequences, reciprocally ſupport and eſtabliſh one another. What ought then ſurely to be a powerful and even convincing argument, in favour of Sir Iſaac, is the exact harmony of the different parts of hiſtory, when ſuch hiſtory is adjuſted to this method of computation; which reſtores to their proper places, events that had been thrown out of them, and, as one may ſay, diſlocated and obſcured by hypotheſes, and by the intercalation of a fabulous antiquity. To quote ſome inſtances, according to the principles of this reformed Chronology, there will not be found a brother like Egialeus at three hundred years diſtance of time from his brother Phoroneus; a paramour like Eneas, at that of three centuries from Dido his miſtreſs; a beauty like Helen, at near a hundred years of age intereſting all Greece to arm for the reſtoring her to her huſband; the children of Danaus cotemporary with his deſcendants of the eighth generation; a Lycurgus, who dies above a hundred years before the Olympic Games, and yet inſtitutes the Olympic diſc; and, in ſhort, a Solon dead before his interview with Creſus. All theſe abſurdities, and many more, vaniſh under the Newtonian computation, which reconciles Chronology with the beſt and moſt ancient Authors, ſuch as Herodotus, Plato, and Thucydides, who wrote before the conſtruction of that Chronology which Sir Iſaac combats.

That period of hiſtory, the Chronology of which he has undertaken to reform, extends from the *arrival* of the Egyptians, and the firſt riſe of the various kingdoms of Greece, to the ſubverſion of the empire of the Perſians by Alexander. He looks on the commencement of that period, that is to ſay, the times

times that preceded the *expedition of the Argonauts*, as too much enveloped in fable, and too obſcure, to determine their Chronology with any exactneſs. But the latter end of that period, or times poſterior to the paſſage of Xerxes into Greece, is ſo well preſerved by good Hiſtorians, that there is no material alteration needful. It is then the interval between the expedition of the Argonauts and the paſſage of Xerxes, that forms the principal object of this Apology for Sir Iſaac Newton's opinion, or difference from ancient Chronologers: which is as follows. The old Chronologers compute from the *Expedition of the* Argonauts, to the taking Troy, ſeventy-nine years;—From the taking of Troy, to the return of the Heraclidæ, eighty years;—From the return of the Heraclidæ, to the end of the firſt Meſſenian war, three hundred and ſeventy-nine years;—and, in fine, from the end of that war, to the paſſage of Xerxes, two hundred and forty-five;—in all ſeven hundred and eighty-three years.

The Newtonian ſyſtem allots but thirty-three years from the Argonauts expedition to the taking of Troy; from that to the return of the Heraclidæ, eighty; from that to the end of the firſt Meſſenian war, a hundred and ninety; and from thence to the paſſage of Xerxes, a hundred and fifty-four; in all four hundred and fifty-ſeven years.—Difference three hundred and twenty-ſix years.

This difference then it is which Sir Iſaac firſt diſcovered, and ſupported by the ſtrongeſt reaſons, deduced from the courſe of Nature, from Aſtronomy, and from Hiſtory: all demonſtratively combining to eſtabliſh his opinion. On publiſhing this opinion, however, it was immediately attacked, as it alſo has been, at various times, and by various Authors ſince. Thoſe of the greateſt name were, Souceit, Freret, Hardouin, Shuckford, and, laſtly, Monſ. Deſh,—whoſe Letter thereon was publiſhed in the French Mercury for December 1755, and is reprinted in this work. It is againſt theſe Adverſaries of Sir Iſaac's ſyſtem, that our Author, the Chevalier S——t enters the liſts; and certain it is, that he juſtifies that great man's opinion, with a ſtrength of argument that may, without the leaſt prejudice in favour of the party thus defended, be pronounced greatly ſuperior to his Antagoniſts. The point in diſpute does not indeed admit of an entirely mathematical aſcertainment, and yet what the Chevalier alleges, is little, if any thing, ſhort of it. But, in his conduct of this Apology, nothing is more obſervable than his expoſing, in many points, the want of candour in Sir Iſaac's Opponents, or their groſs miſconceptions, or miſrepreſentations of his ſenſe. Page 78, for example, we have a refutation of a main article of Father Souciet's

ciet's objections, of which the enſuing extract may ſerve to give ſome idea, as alſo of our Author's execution of his plan of defence.

F. Souciet, in his fifth diſſertation, ſtates one of his objections, which we have tranſlated as follows:

" Suppoſing" (ſays he) " that Chiron* had placed the firſt-" ſtar, or beginning of Aries, at 7° 22′ on the weſtern ſide; " and the middle at 7° 38′ of the ſame ſtar, on the eaſtern ſide; " nothing could be more juſt than the calculation and epoch " of Sir Iſaac Newton. Chiron formed the conſtellations, and " placed the equinox in the middle of Aries 2639 years before " 1700. and conſequently 939 years before our Saviour. But " where did Sir Iſaac Newton find, that Chiron choſe the point " of the heavens that is at 7° 38′ to the eaſt of the ear of " Aries, to make it the middle of this conſtellation; and that " which is at 7° 22′ to the weſt of that ſame ſtar, to make it " the beginning of the ſame conſtellation, and of the zodiac? " Who taught him this aſtronomical fact? By what art, or by " what ſecret did he diſcover it?

" There could but be two ways of coming at a certainty of " it,—that of the teſtimony of ſome antient Author, or his " own reaſon."

'To anſwer theſe queſtions categorically,' (replies the Apologiſt of Sir Iſaac Newton) 'I will have recourſe to none but 'Father Souciet. He has himſelf quoted the very paſſage that 'proves unanſwerably what he ſeeks to deny. The authority 'of it he cannot diſown, ſince himſelf produces it from an an-'tient Author, to whom he gives the preference above all others. 'Page 132 of his fifth diſſertation, he ſays, that *Eudoxus, in a 'fragment, which Hipparchus has preſerved to us at the end of his 'firſt book on the phenomena of Aratus, deſcribes the coluri, and 'ſpecifies the ſtars through which they paſt.* The ſame adds the Apologiſt, 'that I have juſt laid down after Sir Iſaac. Now if 'the Father Souciet would have taken a celeſtial globe, and by 'the ſtars which Eudoxus names for marking the colures of 'the equinoxes, have deſcribed a great circle, that ſhould 'cut the ecliptic in an angle of 66° 31′, which is the com-'plement of the angle that the ecliptic forms with the equa-'tor; and likewiſe have deſcribed, by one of the ſtars that 'the ſame Author names for marking the colures of the ſol-'ſtices, another great circle that ſhould cut the ecliptic at 'right angles, he would have found the ſolution of all his dif-

* Author of the famous Argonautic ſphere, on which the aſtronomical part of this controverſy capitally turns.

'ficulties

ſ ficulties. For he would have ſeen the point of interſection of ſ the vernal colure fall nearly on the 7° 38′ to the eaſt of the ſ ear of Aries and the beginning of the other ſigns, Can- ſ cer, Libra, and Capricorn, on the 7th and 22d degree to the ſ weſt of theſe ſigns, according to the diſtribution of Father ſ Souciet himſelf.

ſ But the truth is, that F. Souciet did not underſtand what ſ Sir Iſaac meant by the COLURES *there*; and this appears evi- ſ dent by the reflections he has made on a quotation furniſhed ſ by himſelf in his fifth diſſertation, p. 131. and taken from Sir ſ Iſaac Newton's anſwer to his firſt objections. This is it, ſ " *Hipparchus, ſays Sir Iſaac, names the ſtars through which the* ſ " *colure paſſed, in this antient ſphere, according to Eudoxus. In* ſ *conſequence of which he places the equinoxial colure about the* ſ 7° 38′ *of the firſt ſtar of Aries. I follow then Hipparchus and* ſ *Eudoxus.* Theſe are the words of the firſt anſwer of Sir Iſaac, ſ quoted by the Father Souciet; and had he but ever ſo little ſ underſtood them, there wanted no more to finiſh the diſpute: ſ but he did not apprehend the ſenſe of his adverſary, as ap- ſ pears by the reflections he makes on this quotation of his own ſ producing, viz.

" What better, and, indeed, what ſurer guides could he fol- ſ " low? Nevertheleſs, Sir Iſaac will not yet ſuffer himſelf to " be underſtood. He does not tell us, *how he has found out*, that " in conſequence of what Eudoxus ſays, it follows that he " places the equinoxial colure at 7° 38′ of the firſt ſtar of ſ " Aries. *There is ſome myſtery in this.*"

ſ It may be perceived by this reflection of Father Souciet's, ſ that himſelf has not underſtood Sir Iſaac's anſwer: for ſ I do not ſee how that learned Engliſhman could have more ſ clearly expreſſed himſelf. Hipparchus tells him, that the ſ equinoxial colure of the antient ſphere paſſed through a ſ certain ſtar; ſo that to trace this colure, he had nothing to ſ do but to deſcribe a great circle through that ſtar to cut the ſ ecliptic in an angle of 66° 31′. That done, where is the diffi- ſ culty of ſeeing its preciſe point of interſection with the eclip- ſ tic? But Sir Iſaac ſays, that this point of interſection anſwers ſ to 7° 38′ on the eaſt of the ear of Aries. Where then is the ſ myſtery? In what does Sir Iſaac conceal himſelf? Is it be- ſ cauſe he has not ſaid, " Draw two circles by theſe ſtars, ſo ſ " that the one ſhall cut the ecliptic to mark the equinoxes in ſ " an angle of 66° 31′, and the other, to mark the ſolſtice, " ſhall cut it at right angles?" ſ But where is the crime of ſ Sir Iſaac's not having pointed out this operation in ſo preciſe ſ a manner? that would have been leading the learned by the

'hand, and leaving them nothing to do of themſelves.—I am, 'however, firmly perſuaded, that if he had then given this man-'ner of deſcribing the colures, Father Souciet, who has more 'deeply conſidered the queſtion in debate than any of the reſt of 'Sir Iſaac Newton's opponents, would have been of the ſame 'mind with him, and the diſpute would have been that inſtant 'determined.'

As the ſubject is not only of itſelf ſo abſtracted, but full of extracts from the Authors whom this Apologiſt refutes, our Readers will perceive that this performance is not of a nature to admit of a competent abſtract in ſo confined a work as the Review. It may be ſufficient to obſerve, that no material objection has been ſtarted by any Author ſince the firſt publication of the Newtonian ſyſtem of antient chronology, which the Author of the Apology has not ſolidly and candidly diſcuſſed.

Page 92, he, not even without humour, though on ſo grave a ſubject, takes up Mr. Shuckford for ſaying, That Thales might poſſibly conjecture or gueſs, that an eclipſe might happen, and gueſs right within three or four weeks, or ſo; but that he could not calculate the time of it: from which the Apologiſt concludes, that the term *aſtronomer*, which Mr. Shuckford uſes on this occaſion, in reference to Thales, muſt have been an error of the preſs, and ſhould have been *aſtrologer*, or *conjurer*; and certainly, throughout the whole, Mr. Shuckford makes but a very indifferent figure in the character of an opponent to Sir Iſaac Newton, however great his merit may be in other points. In ſhort, the Chevalier S——t has, with great perſpicuity, both of thought and elocution, expoſed the weak ſides of his adverſaries, their miſtakes, their variations from one another, and from themſelves. Should there then, after perufing his book, remain ſome difficulty unſolved, ſome point uncleared in the unfathomable depth of ſuch remote antiquity, as it is hardly poſſible there ſhould not, ſtill Sir Iſaac's ſyſtem will be received preferably to that of the former chronologers, if that rule is reſpected which is quoted by the Apologiſt, and which has its foundation in the cleareſt common ſenſe, viz. That when, in a diſpute, there are difficulties on both ſides, we ought to give the preference to that which admits of the leaſt and feweſt. According to this criterion, nothing can be more ſure of triumphing than that doctrine of Sir Iſaac's, which this Apologiſt has ſo ably defended.

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Theſaurus Græcæ Poeſeos, ſive, Lexicon Græcum; Verſus et ſynonyma, (tam ad explicationem vocabulorum, quam ad compoſitionem poeticam pertinentia) epitheta, phraſes, deſcriptiones, &c. (In modum Latini Gradus ad Parnaſſum*) complectans.—Opus ex optimis quibuſque* Poetarum Græcorum *monumentis, quæ ad huc prodierunt, nunc primum conſtructum.—Cui accedit de poeſi, ſeu proſodia Græcorum, tractatus. Autore* T. Morell, *S. T. P. Pars Prima, Literas* A. B. Γ. Δ. *exhibens.* 4to. 8s. Printed at Eton, by T. Pote.

AS philoſophy, eloquence, poetry, and politeneſs, ſhewed themſelves firſt in the Eaſt, and by means of the languages in which they originally appeared, gradually advanced weſtward, and civilized mankind; it is with the higheſt reaſon, that we cultivate an early acquaintance with thoſe languages, particularly the Greek; in which are to be found, models of all kinds of compoſition, ſo exquiſitely finiſhed, that they impart elegance of taſte, at the ſame time that they teach us wiſdom and virtue.

Such are the merits of that language, which the ingenious Dr. Morell, in a work, of which the preſent volume is but a ſpecimen, hath ſo happily undertaken to illuſtrate. And when we conſider the variety of diction, of which poetry is ſuſceptible, and in which it delights; together with the regard it pays to harmony, force, beauty, and propriety, in the terms it makes choice of: we ſhall be convinced that a language arrived at the ſummit of its perfection, and now only to be found in books, can never be viewed to greater advantage, nor with more benefit, to one who would improve himſelf in it, than in that very point of light in which this learned gentleman intends to place it. And if the Doctor, (qualified for ſuch a performance as by this ſpecimen he appears to be) will not only, in giving the ſeveral claſſes of ſynonimous words and epithets belonging to a word of various meaning, ſo arrange them that it may always appear, by a daſh, break, or figure intervening between the ſeveral collections appropriated to each meaning, when and how often the word changes its ſenſe; but ſubjoin to the whole, with references to the originals, ſo many ſingle verſes, or parts of verſes, or, in default of them, ſuch expreſſions from any proſe Author, as may ſerve to authenticate each ſeveral meaning;—he will then give ſuch a value to his work, and ſo preciſely fix the proper application of the epithets, as will render it infinitely ſuperior to any thing of the kind which hath yet appeared from abroad.

An advertiſement, prefixed to this part of the work, will give a competent idea of it.

'The preſent deſign is to form a Greek Theſaurus, as near 'the Latin Gradus as the difference of the languages will per- 'mit, and to give an authority for each word uſed: to this end, 'the principal poets, Homer, Æſchilus, Sophocles, Euripides, 'Ariſtophanes, Heſiod, Orpheus, Callimachus, Theocritus, 'Pindar, Anacreon, Theognis, and the minor Poets, have 'been diligently conſulted: examples likewiſe of words (though 'not ſo much in uſe, or of equal authority with the foregoing) 'are taken from Aratus, Apollonius, Lycophron, Calaber, 'Oppian, Nicander, Tryphiodorus, Nonnus, the Sibylline 'Oracles, Anthologia, &c. And many words being uſed in 'different ſenſes, ſuch examples as occurred are given of each, 'as will be ſeen in the word Ἀγαθός.

'Farther, this work being deſigned for thoſe who have al- 'ready made a progreſs in Greek, and are able in ſome meaſure 'to compoſe, the accents are not generally uſed, ſince all ſuch 'cannot but know that firſt and general rule, *If the laſt ſyllable 'be long, the accent* (an acute) *will be on the foregoing ſyllable*, 'i. e. *the laſt but one: if it be ſhort, the accent will be on the 'laſt but two*, ſuppoſing the word of more than two ſyllables; 'any deviation from this general rule is taken notice of, and the 'accent ſet down, as in the words Αἰόλος, Ποικίλος, &c.

'They muſt alſo know, that τῦ, τῆς, τῇ, τῶ, τῶν, τοῖς, are 'always circumflexed, and that τὸ, τὸν, καὶ, μὲν, λὴ, δὲ, πρὸς, 'and the like monyſyllables, have always a *grave*, if at any time 'they are here omitted.

'Theſe particulars are judged proper to be mentioned, to re- 'move any objection concerning the omiſſion of the uſual ac- 'cents: in a word, the uſe of this Theſaurus is not only to 'aſſiſt the young gentlemen of our great ſchools and univerſi- 'ties in their compoſitions, (directions for which will be given 'at large in the preface) but to ſerve as a poetical lexicon to all 'who are curious in reading Greek, by pointing out, not only 'the quantity, but alſo the different ſignification and propriety 'of words.—

As to the conditions of publication, the Printer, Mr. Pote, in a letter from Eton, dated June 21, 1757, thus expreſſes himſelf.

'It has been frequently obſerved, that a work formed on the 'foregoing plan would be a benefit to literature, forward the

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'inſtruction of youth, and prove no unacceptable addition to 'the republic of letters: theſe conſiderations, and a deference 'to the opinion of the beſt judges, have been the principal mo- 'tive and inducement to the preſent undertaking. The appli- 'cation and diligent reading requiſite to plan and finiſh this 'Theſaurus, or Poetical Lexicon, is evident at firſt ſight; and 'the more than common expence and trouble on every new 'publication (eſpecially in the learned languages) is alſo not 'unknown: for this reaſon, propoſals are commonly printed, 'and encouragement from the public expected, before the work 'is begun, or put to the preſs: in the preſent caſe it was other- 'wiſe determined; and inſtead of a flying ſheet of propoſals, 'great part of this new and uſeful undertaking is firſt printed at 'a large expence, and the plan and execution laid before the 'public; and now, in reliance on the favour and encourage- 'ment of the learned, the whole is propoſed on the following 'conditions.

'1ſt. That the firſt part, or four firſt letters of the alpha- 'bet, be publiſhed and delivered on the payment of eight 'ſhillings.

'2dly. That this payment be an advance towards the whole 'work, which is computed to make upwards of one hundred 'ſheets, and to be publiſhed at the price of fifteen ſhillings.

'3dly. As the number of ſheets cannot at preſent be exactly 'determined, if the work exceeds one hundred and ten ſheets, 'the overplus to be paid for at the rate of three half-pence 'the ſheet.

'4thly. That receipts, and a note for the delivery of the re- 'maining part, be now given, and as the work is already far 'advanced, and carried on at the preſs without intermiſſion, the 'whole will be compleated and publiſhed with all poſſible ex- 'pedition.'

To what has been ſaid we may add, that a work of this kind has been long wanted; that the preſent ſpecimen is executed with all the requiſite accuracy and judgment; and that it is handſomely and correctly printed: therefore, whatever encouragement the undertaking may meet with, we may venture to pronounce, it will not meet with more than it really deſerves.

To the AUTHORS *of the* MONTHLY REVIEW.

Gentlemen,

BEING ſatisfied by the conſtant peruſal of your journal, that books of public utility have with you the preference to thoſe of mere amuſement, I imagine that ſome account of a Grammar for facilitating the ſtudy of the Greek tongue, lately publiſhed, would not be foreign to the intention of your work. Nothing has been more clearly eſtabliſhed, than the great affinity, in many points, between the Greek and the Engliſh language, which is ſonorous like that, and neither effeminated by a redundance of vowels, nor over-roughned by conſonants crowded together.

In 1752 was publiſhed, at Naples, a Greek Grammar, with the following title, *Indirizzo per ſapere in meno di un meſe la Grammatica Greca, &c.* 'Directions for learning the Greek 'Grammar in leſs than a month, diſtributed into four leſſons,' &c. After which, in 1753, came out a preliminary diſcourſe to the ſaid Grammar, by the ſame Author, Father Gennaro Siſti, Writer of the Hebrew language in the Vatican library. In the firſt part of this diſcourſe are enumerated, the preſſing motives that ought to engage one to that ſtudy. In the ſecond, an account is given of the method to be obſerved; all poſſible objections to it are anſwered, and the five public trials of it are ſummed up, and ſtated.

To ſay the truth, ſo new and ſo great a promiſe, as that of ſuch a grammar, cauſed its title to be ſuſpected of exaggeration; and the literary journals, on that account, would not, at the firſt, hazard their opinion. But after the abovementioned diſcourſe came out, the uſefulneſs of the book became more and more eſtabliſhed, eſpecially by various conſequent trials, which all ſucceeded aſtoniſhingly, the ſtudy of the Greek language being not only recommended, but improved by the invention of a method that ſaves the learner ſo much time.

And in fact, this method well examined, affords room to think that it is ſcarce poſſible not to ſucceed by it better than by any we yet have. Keeping in mind the declination of the prepoſitive article in four different manners, you have all the declinations of the ſimple nouns. On knowing the verb, *I am*, in Greek, and the eight only univerſal terminations, applying theſe by three ſmall tables, you obtain all the inflexions throughout the conjugations, moods, and tenſes of the baritone verb, which contains more than one hundred and ſixteen terminations. The contracted nouns, and circumflex verbs, are indicated by the ſame rules in two branches.

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Some ſmall and very curious diviſions comprehend reſpectively, with great clearneſs, every thing that is neceſſary to be known; as, one for the ſimple nouns, one for the exceptions of the fifth, one for the characteriſtics of the ſix claſſes of baritones, one for the tricatalect adjectives, two for the degrees of compariſon, one for the pronouns, ſix for the verbs in *mi*, one for the anomala of thoſe verbs, four for the various dialects, of which there is given a learned and exquiſite idea.

The three laſt ſerve for the planning out themes, and are inſerted in the ſecond part of the Grammar, in which, together with the explanation of ſome odes of Anacreon, &c. the uſe and application of the precepts in the firſt part is demonſtrated, and others ſupplementally and judiciouſly interſperſed, ſuch as, for example, the augmentations of verbs. There is alſo given, a ſhort, but ſatisfactory treatiſe of the uſes of the articles, local tranſpoſitions, and diminutives, of the various applications of the eighteen propoſitions. There is a diſcuſſion whether accents ought, or ought not to be employed, and a great deal of the Greek ſyntax is properly interwoven. The grammar finally concludes with the judgment to be formed of the Greek text of the New Teſtament. The Author's way is to make two trials of the learner, the firſt after fourteen days, upon the total of the grammatical inflections, on his having punctually followed, from day to day the method prefixed to the Grammar. The ſecond trial at the end of the month of ſtudy, that is to ſay, fifteen days afterwards: in this laſt, attention is entirely given to the analyſis and ſyntheſis of the words in the explication of the texts aſſigned by the examiners the day before.

The Canon D. Alexius Symmachus Marocchi, and D. Franciſco Serao, (men celebrated for their learning, and who are Royal Profeſſors in Naples) being admirers of ſuch experiments, and eſpecially of this method, as the beſt that is known, have paſſed a very advantageous judgment of this Grammar, which is prefixed to it with no ſmall commendation of the Author. The ſame does D. Paul Moccia, Profeſſor of eloquence, and of the Greek language in the Poggeria Reale, in his letter to the Author, printed at the head of the preliminary diſcourſe.

But as atteſtations of ſucceſs, on trial, muſt have greater weight than any encomiums, I ſubjoin here the ſtrongeſt proof of it in the following

Extract from the Journal of Chracas, Numb. 5747, *the* 11*th of May*, 1754.

'There has already been given in our journal of Nov. 17, '1753, a diſtinct account of a public trial of the Greek Gram-

'mar of the Rev. Abbot Gennaro Sifti, for teaching, in leſs 'than a month, all the neceſſary grammatical precepts. The 'ſeventh trial has been lately made, which not only confirms 'the preceeding ones, but has proved, with great grounds of aſ-'ſurance, that even ſo ſhort a time of application may yet be 'ſhortned, on meeting with great parts in the learner.

'In fact, after only eleven days from the firſt leſſon, a total 'repetition of the Grammar was made before M. Schiro, a 'Greek Archbiſhop, with the members of the Greek college, 'and others there preſent; as a prologue to which act, ſome ex-'preſſive and well-adapted triplets were repeated, by the Abbot 'Gagliardi.

'The other trial of the capacity of the ſtudents for explain-'ing the Greek, with the help of a Schrevelius and tranſlations, 'would have taken place towards the end of paſſion week, which 'was to have accompliſhed the fifteen remaining days required 'by this method; but on foreſeeing a thin audience, from the 'approaching Eaſter-holidays, it was ſuſpended on the ninth 'day, which was Good-friday: that evening the Fathers Coſ-'tamagna and Ceraſoli were deputed, by the Author, to M. 'Schiro, to beg that he would examine into the proficiency made 'to that time, by appointing ſome chapter of the New Teſta-'ment. The Archbiſhop then ſet the Father Coſtamagna the 'eighth of St. Luke, containing fifty-ſix verſes; and the day fol-'lowing he returned to him, with the whole chapter explained, 'parſing every the leaſt word that the Archbiſhop required 'of him.

'A like trial of him being deſired by the Father Fr. Auguſ-'tin Antonio Giorgi, and by Mr. Thomas Wagſtaffe, an Eng-'liſh gentleman; he ſatisfied the firſt on the Tueſday following 'by the explanation of the 17th chapter of St. Luke, which had 'been ſet him the day before, and the other on the Eaſter-friday 'by that of the 7th, ſet him that very morning, and beſides by 'that of the firſt chapter of the fourth book of Elian.

'M. Bartholomew Olivazzi, a prelate of profound erudition, 'eſpecially in the Greek language, alſo aſſured himſelf of the 'ſaid method, by examining two perſons on the explanation 'and parſing of two chapters of the Acts of the Apoſtles, ſet 'them but a few hours before, and he remained extremely well 'ſatisfied. The like proof other ſtudents gave before the Fa-'ther Michael Guicciardi of Chieſa-neuova; and before F. 'Franc. Jacquier, Profeſſor of Experimental Philoſophy, and of 'the propagation of the faith, &c.

'The public trial then was fixed for the ſecond Sunday after 'Eaſter, and was held in the Arcadian academy in the Palace-

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'Madama, being honoured with a moſt learned audience, 'chiefly compoſed of Profeſſors, and admirers of the Greek 'language. The Cardinal Galli alſo aſſiſted. The Abbot Viſ- 'conti began by a panegyric, that was much applauded, con- 'ſiſting of ſtanzas of eight verſes, the matter of which alluded 'to the Greek language, and to the Greek Authors that were 'that day to be there explained: which having pronounced, 'he proceeded to explain the beginning of the firſt book of the 'Iliad, ſet him by Father Jacquier. The Father Coſtamagna 'had for his taſk the two texts of the ſixth fable of Eſop, and 'the beginning of the third book of the Odyſſey, put into his 'hands the day before by Father Girolamo Lagomarſini, a 'learned Profeſſor of Greek in the Roman college; and by Sig. 'Co. Saverio Antonelli. The Father Ceraſoli, by his expla- 'nation and parſing that pleaſant dialogue of the Gods, the 'eighth of Lucian, gave a ſpecimen of his great ability, which 'was highly ſatisfactory to M. Schiro, who had ſet it him. In 'the fourth place, the Abbot Sarteſchi by his explanation of the 'fifteenth ode of Anacreon, acquitted himſelf to the entire ap- 'probation of D. Giovanni Brunati, ſometime Profeſſor of the 'Greek. Laſtly, Sign. Abbot Gagliardi having, with great 'quickneſs of parts, explained the exordium of the ſecond 'oration of Iſocrates to Nicocles, propoſed to him by the Rev. 'Father M. Auguſtin Georgi, returned thanks, in a ſet ſpeech, 'to all preſent, and rehearſed a ſonnet to Cardinal Galli, in 'which he made grateful mention of Cardinal Millo, who 'would have honoured this act with his perſonal preſence, if 'he had been able, and who had encouraged the Author in the 'laying down ſo ſhort and eaſy a method for the attainment of 'the Greek language.

'This Greek Grammar is ſold at Rome for four Paoli and a 'half; at Naples for five Carlini, in ſheets.' Yours, &c.

Philoſophical Tranſactions, giving ſome Account of the preſent Undertakings, Studies, and Labours of the Ingenious in many conſiderable Parts of the World. Vol. XLIX. Part II, for the Year 1756. 4to. 10s. 6d. Davis & Co.

FROM among the number of curious and valuable papers of which this new * publication of the Philoſophical Tranſactions conſiſts, we ſhall ſelect the following for the entertainment of our Readers.

* For our account of the firſt part of this volume, ſee Review, Vol. XV. p. 271—361.

Obſervations

Obſervations upon the Brimſtone-Hill (in French La Souffriere) in the Iſland of Guadelupa; by John-Andrew Peyſſonel, *M. D. Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris and Montpelier, and of Marſeilles and Rouen; the King of France's Phyſician and Botaniſt heretofore on the Coaſt of Barbary, and now in the Iſland of Guadelupa, F. R. S. Tranſlated from the French, by* M. Maty, *M. D. and F. R. S.*

'THE iſland of Guadelupa is not the only one of the Ame-
'rican Antilles, that has Volcanoes and mines of brim-
'ſtone; few are without them. They are to be found in Mar-
'tinico, Dominica, St. Chriſtopher's, St. Lucia; and all theſe
'iſlands produce ſulphur, pumice-ſtones, and other ſubſtances
'uſually found in Volcanoes.

'The mountain, upon which I made my obſervations, is
'called La Souffriere, or Brimſtone-hill, becauſe it contains
'ores of ſulphur; and its ſummit conſtantly emits ſmoke, and
'ſometimes flames. It is very high, and forms a kind of trun-
'cated cone. It riſes above the chain of mountains that occu-
'py the center of the iſland, and run through all its length
'from North to South. This conical mountain is about three
'leagues from the ſea-ſhore, Eaſt, Weſt, and South, and there-
'fore almoſt in the middle of the ſouthern part of the iſland.

'The journey up this mountain is not now ſo difficult as it
'was in the time of Father Labat, in the year 1695. Much
'more commodious roads are now uſed than that which he fol-
'lowed. Travellers generally lie at ſome houſe at the foot of
'the mountain. From thence they go on horſeback as far as
'the torrent, where they have the choice of two different ways.
'The firſt begins at a place called Les Gommiers, or the Gum
'Trees, along the river of Galleons; the other lies towards
'the middle of the mountain, at a place called Tarare, where
'they croſs the river St. Lewis.

'You generally ſet out early from the place where you have
'ſpent the night, and breakfaſt in the cool of the morning, on
'the banks of one of the rivers, whoſe waters are very clear
'and good, and produce great quantities of ſmall fiſh, ſuch as
'cray-fiſh, bull-heads, eels, &c. This is one of thoſe delights
'ſo emphatically deſcribed by Father Du Tertre. We perceiv-
'ed theſe waters to be diuretic, by the ſudden effect it had up-
'on us.

'We took the road of the Gum-Trees as being the eaſieſt.
'I ſoon obſerved, that the woods differed in kind as we aſcend-
'ed; the trees are ſmaller, and are no more than ſhrubs at the
'top,

'top, that is to ſay, on a level with the other mountains. 'Here you meet with none but mountain-mangles, whoſe wood 'is crooked and bends downwards. The bark of theſe man-'gles is a true Jeſuits bark. When we had paſſed through this 'foreſt of mangles, which are as a curtain, we got into the 'ſavannah. A ſavannah in this country is a kind of natural 'meadow. This particular one is made up of fern, moſs, a ſort 'of ananas, and wild aloes, and ſuch-like plants, without ei-'ther tree or ſhrub. I believe we met with almoſt all the hun-'dred different ſorts of fern, which make up father Plumiere's 'voluminous work.

'We walked on for about ſix hundred paces, in a path that 'goes through this ſavannah. The way is rugged. The ana-'nas that are very buſhy, and above two feet high, conceal the 'roots and rocks, which makes walking very troubleſome. 'About nine in the morning, after an hour's march from the 'place where we had breakfaſted, we arrived at the ſpring-head 'of the river of Galleons, South of the Brimſtone-hill. At 'the place called the Three Springs we found the waters ſo hot 'as not to be borne. The neighbouring ground ſmokes, and 'is full of brown earth like the droſs of iron. In other places 'the earth is red like colcothar, and even dyes one's fingers; 'but theſe earths are taſteleſs. Near theſe three burning hot 'ſprings are ſome others, that are lukewarm, and ſome very 'cold. We put ſome eggs into the hot ones, and they were 'boiled in three minutes, and hard in ſeven.

'I had brought a hydrometer, or inſtrument to weigh liquors, 'which plunged ſix lines in the common water of the rivers to 'leeward, and two lines in ſea water. It ſunk twelve lines in 'the hot, and eight in the lukewarm ſprings.

'When we had made our obſervations on the different ſorts 'of earth and water, we entered a valley between the Brim-'ſtone-hill and the mountain that lies ſouthward, called the 'mountain of the Three Rivers. Here we met ſome negroes 'carrying brimſtone to ſell it in the low-lands. We walked in 'the ſame ſavannah, and among the ſame weeds, which grew 'ſo thick that we could not diſcover the nature of the ſoil.

'We went on about the length of four hundred paces, when 'we began to get ſight of the windward, or of the eaſtern coaſt 'of the iſland. Having likewiſe diſcovered the burning gulph 'to the Northward of us, we crawled up to get at it. We 'were obliged to help ourſelves with our hands, feet, elbows, 'and knees, and to hold by the fern, aloes, and other plants, 'ſome of which were prickly, and very troubleſome. We were 'about an hour and a half getting up to the height of about five

'

'hundred feet; it is true we might have taken a ſmoother way 'by going round about. At laſt, quite out of breath, we reach-'ed the gulph, at the place whence the ſmoke iſſues. This 'place is at the foot of a ſteep bank, and may be about twenty-'five toiſes in breath: there is no graſs to be ſeen, nothing but 'ſulphur and calcined earth; the ground is full of crevices, 'which emit ſmoke or vapours; theſe cracks are deep, and 'you hear the ſulphur boil. Its vapours riſing yield very fine 'chemical flowers, or a pure and refined ſulphur. It is chiefly found in thoſe places where the earth lies hollow, and upon 'the chinks or funnels you ſee the ſpirit of ſulphur run down 'like fair water, and you *breathe* an intolerable *ſmell* of brim-'ſtone. The ground is looſe, inſomuch that we could thruſt 'our canes up to the head, and drew them out as hot as if we 'had plunged them into lime when it is ſlaking. Having inad-'vertently run ourſelves into this looſe ground among theſe 'chinks, and being ſmothered with the ſmoke or vapours, we 'were continually afraid of ſinking, and meeting with ſome 'hole or pit, and ſo tumbling into hell from the top of this 'mountain, which we imagined to be one of the vents of the 'infernal regions, or a mouth of the burning gulph; and we 'expected to periſh like Pliny the naturaliſt, who was ſmother-'ed by the flames of Veſuvius, which is ſaid to have happened 'in the ſeventy-ninth year of the Chriſtian era, at the time of 'that great earthquake which, having overturned whole cities, 'drove the aſhes as far as Africa, Syria, and Egypt. I confeſs, 'the diſtance that theſe aſhes are ſaid to have travelled thro' the 'air, appears to me to be very great, for Italy is near a thouſand 'leagues from Syria.

'We haſtened out of this dangerous ſituation, and continu-'ed climbing to the top of the mountain, keeping to the Eaſt 'or windward. When we got to the ſummit, we diſcovered 'another gulph or funnel, that opened ſome years ſince, and 'emits nothing but ſmoke. The top of the mountain is, as 'Father Du Tertre ſays, a very uneven plain, covered with 'heaps of burnt and calcined earth of various ſizes; the ground 'ſmokes only at the new funnel, but appears to have formerly 'burnt in many places; for we obſerved abundance of theſe cre-'vices, and even gutters, and very large and deep chinks, 'which muſt have burnt in former times.

'The ſame reaſons that obliged us to quit the burning gulph, 'probably hindered Father Labat from viewing this ſummit, and 'prevented his coming at the knowlege of a very deep abyſs, 'or precipice, which is in the middle of this flat.

'It is ſaid, there was once a great earthquake in this iſland, 'and that the Brimſtone-hill took fire, and vomitted aſhes on 'all ſides. This mountain then cleft in two; but it is not ſaid 'what year this phænomenon happened. I am apt to think it 'was then that this abyſs or precipice opened. Perhaps the Vol-'cano having been fired by lightning, the ſalts of the earth 'joined with the ſulphur, produced the effect of gunpowder, 'and occaſioned this dreadful earthquake. The mountain hav-'ing ſplit, caſt forth aſhes and ſulphureous matters all around, 'and from that time no earthquake has been felt in the iſland.

'Theſe phænomena are but too common in Italy, particu-'larly in the kingdom of Naples; and in other countries where 'there are Volcanos, we are told of moſt terrible diſaſters 'of this kind. In 1556 a Volcano in the iſland of Java poured 'forth a torrent of melted and burning ſulphur with ſuch impe-'tuoſity, that ten thouſand perſons periſhed in three days. The 'ſame year mount Guamanipi, in one of the Bandava iſlands, 'made terrible havock; the waters of the ſea were heated to 'ſuch a degree near the iſland, that the fiſh were found ready 'boiled upon the ſtrand, but we do not hear that any of thoſe 'mountains ever ſplit in two like this.

'We cannot doubt of the dreadful effects, which have been, 'and ſtill are produced by earthquakes: witneſs the laſt that 'happened at Jamaica, and now that of Lisbon.

'The abyſs I am ſpeaking of, is in the middle of the 'flat, behind two crags or points that riſe above the mountain, 'and on the North ſide anſwers to the great cleft, which goes 'down above a thouſand feet perpendicular, and penetrates 'above a hundred paces into the flat, and is more than twenty 'feet broad; ſo that in this place the mountain is fairly ſplit, 'from the top down to the baſis of the cone.

'On the North ſide, oppoſite to the cleft, and at the foot of 'the mountain, in a little plain, is a pool, which is ſaid to ebb 'and flow like the ſea, and to increaſe and decreaſe at certain 'times, according to the periods of the moon: but people are 'fond of aſcribing wonderful properties to things, which, if 'ſimply related, would not appear ſo extraordinary. For my 'part, I am apt to think this pool is formed by the waters 'that drain along the great cleft into this little plain, where the 'ſame earthquake has ſunk a hollow place near the great ſubter-'ranean cavern, of which by and by; and that the variations 'of the water in this pool are occaſioned by the rains.

'It was about noon when we got upon the flat on the ſummit 'of the mountain. It looks as if it had formerly been of a

'conical

'conical figure, and had loſt its top by earthquakes. What 'confirms me in this conjecture is, the pieces of rock which 'ſtill ſubſiſt, and form thoſe ſpires, or little cones, that are 'ſcattered here and there upon the ſummit; the two moſt con-'ſiderable of which are towards the Weſt, and make, as it 'were, a pair of horns to the mountain.

'Here we dined, and reſted above an hour. There is a moſt 'delightful proſpect. You diſcover below the iſlands of Mar-'tinico, Dominica, The Saints, Marigalante, and the whole 'extent of Guadelupa. It is ſaid, thoſe of St. Vincent, St. 'Kits, and even St. Martin, have been ſeen from the top of 'this mountain. Be that as it will, we obſerved very diſtinctly 'Montſerrat, Antigua, Nevis, Radonde, and ſeveral other 'iſlands.

'The air at top is bleak and ſharp, but I cannot ſay I found 'the cold very intenſe. It is true many negroes have periſhed 'there with cold; but that is not to be wondered, as theſe peo-'ple are not inured to the ſeverity of the weather, and go nak-'ed; they wear no cloathes but a pair of drawers, and have 'nothing to eat. Sometimes they are catched in the rain, or 'expoſed to damps and fogs; or elſe when they are all in a 'ſweat with fatigue and labour, and lie down to reſt, the cold 'ſeizes them and chills their blood; and it is no wonder if they 'periſh in this condition.

'Beſides the fine proſpect you enjoy at the top of this moun-'tain, you have the pleaſure, as Father Du Tertre obſerves, 'of ſeeing the clouds gather below, and hearing the thunder 'rumble under your feet. We actually ſaw the clouds riſe from 'the ſea, and ſpread over the land on the ſide of the wind, 'ſometimes paſſing where we ſtood, and ſometimes lower. 'Theſe clouds are no other than damp fogs. The Brimſtone-'hill is ſeldom clear of theſe damps.

'As my thermometers and barometers were broke in going 'up, I could make no obſervations on the gravity and proper-'ties of the air. It was but in my ſubſequent journies to this 'mountain, that I could, in ſome meaſure, gratify my curioſi-'ty in theſe particulars. We had only time to examine the 'great cavern and the great cleft above it, and then withdrew 'to the habitation whence we came, being very weary; for in 'coming down we were often obliged to ſlide, ſometimes ſit-'ting, ſometimes lying on our backs, and holding by the fern. 'We frequently tumbled into holes, where we were almoſt bu-'ried, but were in no great danger, becauſe the fern and moſs 'make a kind of down, pretty rough indeed, which prevents 'the hurt of a fall; but all this is very tireſome. We met with

'abundance

'abundance of holes or nests of black devils, a kind of sea 'birds, that come from the north, and hatch their young upon 'this mountain. The birds alone would require a dissertation, 'which I hope to give hereafter.

'*Second Journey to the Brimstone-hill.*

'My curiosity was not satisfied; I wanted to make more ac- 'curate observations, and take a more exact view of the moun- 'tain. We climbed up a second time with the same and still 'greater difficulties, because we took the road that leads to the 'middle of the mountain. This road is called Tarare, and 'was to bring us to the pool near the great cleft and the great ca- 'vern. I had provided myself with all necessaries for making 'observations.

'We arrived at the little plain, where the pool is. The three 'times I have seen it, it was little more than twenty, or twen- 'ty-five, feet square, and contained but little water, which 'was very ill tasted, and so impregnated with alum, as not to 'be fit to drink. It is situated opposite to the great cleft, about 'a hundred paces from the great cavern, that is under the cleft. 'As I intended to lie there, when we got to the place, we pick- 'ed some wood, kindled a fire, made bundles of fern, and 'fetched water from the head of the river St. Lewis.

'We took up our lodging in that great cavern, that answers 'perpendicularly to the cleft of the mountain. It has no doubt 'been formed by the same earthquake, that split the mountain 'in two parts nearly equal. The parting goes North and South; 'to the North is the cleft and the cavern, in the middle the a- 'byss, and to the South the burning gulph; the whole on a 'direct line.

'This cave appears at first sight very deep, but you get down 'with ease. At the entrance it may be about twenty or twen- 'ty-five feet wide, as much in height, and about sixty paces 'deep. At the bottom is a kind of pool, formed by the waters 'that drain or ouze from different parts of the vault. The 'bottom of this pool appears to be an exceeding fine miry earth, 'like clay mixed with ashes. The water that distils in these 'places is very acid, astringent, sharp, and tastes of alum. 'The water of the other pool on the outside, is much of the 'same nature, but contains fewer salts; which is a proof, that 'these two pools are both filled with the waters that drain from 'the great cleft. The interior pool may be about fifteen feet 'wide across the cave: they have thrown up a kind of bank, 'made of rocks, to cross it without sinking into the mud. Be- 'fore we entered the cave, we lighted some torches made of

'candle-

'candle-wood, which I had taken care to provide. The candle-wood is full of reſin and very inflammable; the inhabitants cut it into ſplinters, and tie it up in bundles, which they call torches. When they were well lighted, we croſſed the pool, and got upon a ſmall eminence made of ſtones, that have fallen or ſeparated from the vault: you then go down into a great hole or cave, about ſixty feet in length, as much in breadth, and forty in height. Here the heat is moderate. My guide got up upon a ſecond eminence, but told us he was ſtifled, and could advance no further; and indeed his torch was going out. This ſecond eminence, or riſing, is likewiſe formed by ſtones falling from the vault. They are a kind of whitiſh free-ſtone, covered and incruſted with a very ſharp, white, aluminous ſalt. I then took a torch, and having left a negro at the entrance with another torch to fetch us out, in caſe of need, we entered the third cave. Here the heat is exceſſive, the torch gave no light, and was almoſt extinguiſhed for want of air, ſo that we were obliged to wave it about continually. We could hardly fetch breath, and were covered with ſweat, and found nothing remarkable but this violent heat. The vault ends here, and we could go no further. We perceived on the left, at coming in, a great hollow place, where we heard the falling of water; we imagined the vault continued on that ſide, and ſtepping down were agreeably ſurprized to find it cool, and that our torches revived. The ſpace of one fathom made this alteration, for holding our torches in the right hand extended, they could hardly burn; whereas in the left ſtretched out, they burnt very clear. This puts me in mind of what happens in the Grotta de' Cani, near Pozzuolo in Italy, deſcribed by Miſſon, vol. ii. p. 63, let. 23. too long to be related here.

'I went down to the bottom of this hole, where I found nothing but a ſurprizing cool air. Afterwards we found ſeveral holes full of water, leſs impregnated with ſalt and alum than that at the entrance. When we came up again, in order to proceed on our way, we were ſuffocated with the ſame heat we had felt in coming in. I endeavoured to advance to the right of the cave, but the heat was ſo violent, that it ſtopt my breath.

'It appeared to me extraordinary, that in one and the ſame cave, three hundred feet under ground, there ſhould be ſuch a ſtifling heat on one ſide, and on the other ſuch an agreeable freſh air. Perhaps the cool ſide anſwers to ſome vent, or communicates with the great cleft by ſome unknown channel, thro' which the outward air penetrates and cools the place.

'In

'In coming out we took care to reſt a conderable time in the 'ſcond cave, to let the violent heat go off, and to dry our 'ſhirts, that were ſoaked through with ſweat. We brought 'away ſome of the incruſtations, and ſome of the aluminous 'ſalt, which I found to be a true alum.

'When we came out, I perceived two remarkable things up-'on my waſtecoat; firſt, that the ſilver lace was gilt, and look-'ed like tarniſhed gold lace: but this I was not ſurprized at, 'as I knew that ſulphur mixt with ſalt of tartar, will produce 'that effect: ſecondly, that the drops of water which were 'fallen upon me, were by the heat of the cave turned to alum, 'and had dried and faſtened upon my cloaths. In this cave we 'found the ſame ſorts of earth as we had met with at the three 'ſprings of the river of Galleons, as I mentioned above. They 'dyed our fingers, and were taſteleſs, as the former. This 'is all I obſerved in the interior cave.

'We ſpent the night in the great cavern. I had brought 'with me a thermometer and a barometer; but this laſt was 'broke by the way, ſo that I could make no obſervations upon 'the weight of the air; but with the thermometer I obſerved, 'that when we got there, in rainy weather, the glaſs ſhewed 'fifteen degrees above temperate, at ſun-ſet two degrees; in 'the night five degrees below temperate; and at day-break 'eight degrees. The thermometer, placed at the entrance of 'the cave, and ſheltered from the wind, ſhewed five degrees of 'cold; and expoſed to the wind on the outſide, where I felt a ve-'ry ſharp cold, only two degrees; ſo that there was three degrees 'difference, which ſurprized me, as my natural thermometer, 'I mean my body, convinced me of the contrary. I was very 'cold without, and felt little or no cold within; whereas the 'obſervations by the thermometer ſhewed the reverſe. I had 'obſerved in the plains below, that it ſhewed about ten degrees 'above temperate. By the report that was made us, the 'night we ſpent at the Brimſtone hill had been as cold, the 'wind had blown, the air was very damp, and we had found 'but five degrees of cold; ſo that there was eighteen degrees 'difference between the Brimſtone-hill and the plains.

'We ſpent the night very ſnug upon beds of fern, with a 'good fire at the mouth of the cave, and were much leſs trou-'bled with the cold than I expected in ſo bleak a place.

'We came down by the Tarare, which, as I have obſerved, 'is a very ſteep deſcent. You let yourſelf down upon a nar-'row ridge. On each ſide are precipices, which indeed do not 'look frightful, becauſe they are covered with trees which con-'ceal them. Half-way down the mountain you find a hot

'ſpring, that has nothing particular. At laſt we got to our 'horſes, and reached our habitation at the cloſe of night.

'Any quantity of brimſtone might be fetched from this 'mountain, even ſhip-loads. It might be refined upon the 'ſpot, or made up into lumps to be ſold, and ſhipped in the 'ore, if it was neceſſary; and ſhould this ſcheme take place, 'I do not queſtion but the roads might be made eaſier, ſo as to 'load it upon mules at a hundred paces from the gulph: but it 'is too cheap a commodity to be worth gathering up in a coun-'try, where the price of labour is ſo high from the ſcarcity of 'hands. Bright yellow brimſtone with a greeniſh caſt might 'be gathered round the vent holes of the burning gulph, and 'likewiſe large quantities of fine natural flowers, or very pure 'ſulphur. What we call flowers of ſulphur is brimſtone ſu-'blimated, raiſed and fixed into a very fine and ſubtle powder. 'Theſe chemical flowers harden and cake together, and form a 'ſolar ſulphur, as fine as that which comes from Peru. It is of 'a bright gold colour. It is found on the ſides of the burning 'funnels or vent holes; and likewiſe upon the ground at the 'foot of the great clift northward, is found a kind of brimſtone 'reſembling karabe or yellow amber, and altogether as bright 'and tranſparent, ſo as to be miſtaken for it. Theſe are par-'ticles of ſulphur waſhed and purified by the air, rain, and ſun, 'and I do not think it is poſſible to ſee any thing more beautiful 'of the kind.

'I do not doubt but theſe two ſorts of brimſtone would be as 'much valued as what comes from Peru; which being mixt 'with ſalt of tartar, produces that liquor which is made uſe of 'to gild metals, and chiefly ſilver.

'In the ſame funnels you ſee the ſpirit of ſulphur riſe againſt 'thoſe ſulphureous cryſtalliſations, and drop down like very 'clear water. The chemiſts agree, that ſulphur is no other 'than an oily matter fixed by an acid ſpirit. This is evident 'from artificial ſulphur. By mixing oil of turpentine with ſpi-'rit of vitrol, you obtain a ſulphur equal to natural brimſtone. 'It is farther proved by analyſing it. An acid ſpirit may be ex-'tracted from it, and its aſhes afford but a very ſmall quantity 'of alkaline ſalt. What paſſes in this mountain may be called 'a natural analyſis and diſtillation. The brimſtone takes fire 'in the center of the earth, as in chemical operations, when 'the mixture of ſpirit of nitre and oil of turpentine ſuddenly 'produces a ſurpriſing heat and flame: in like manner an oily 'and ſulphureous exhalation inflames and ſends forth fires, 'which the ignorant vulgar take for ſhooting or falling ſtars.

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'The flowers riſe with the acid ſpirit, which being condenſ-
'ed by the cool air, falls down in drops. By fixing bell-glaſſes
'to the apertures of the funnels, one might collect a ſpirit that
'riſes naturally. One of us having thruſt his cane too far into
'one of the funnels, and not being able to pull it out again,
'helped himſelf with the blade of his ſword to catch hold of it.
'In an inſtant we ſaw the hilt quite wet, and the water drop-
'ping off, and when he drew it out, we were ſurprized to find
'the blade extremely hot. We could not then ſave any of this
'ſpirit, nor make any experiments upon it. However, I do
'not believe it is like that which flows from the baths of Wolc-
'keſtein in Germany, which Charles Patin ſays turns to brim-
'ſtone when expoſed to the air, and is liquid and clear as water
'under ground.

'I have gone up this mountain ſeveral times to gather ſim-
'ples; but as the plants it produces, have already been deſcrib-
'ed by the Rev. Fathers Plumier and Feuillée, the two minims,
'who went for that purpoſe upon the mountain called Pelée, in
'the iſland of Martinico, which is likewiſe a Volcano, and
'produces the ſame plants as the Brimſtone-hill of Guadelupa;
'I ſhall forbear giving an account of my enquiries in this par-
'ticular.'

FOREIGN ARTICLE.

Relation en Forme de Lettre ſur le Dépenſes, &c. 12mo.

THIS work may not improperly, in Engliſh, be entitled, *An Epiſtolatory Diſſertation upon the Expences occaſioned by an extravagant Taſte for Curioſities, or by an inordinate Paſſion for particular Collections.*

It is the production of a man of wit, already diſtinguiſhed by ſome ingenious pieces; an agreeable Miſanthrope, juſtly irritated at the follies of mankind, and no bad painter of their weakneſſes. He ſuppoſes himſelf to have paſſed ſome days in the country, with ten or twelve perſons, whoſe pourtraits furniſh the principal parts of this Letter, which is addreſſed to a certain Chevalier. The Maſter of the houſe, a rich Financier, had declared our Author a man of genius: whence every body courted his eſteem.

A Preſident's Lady begins with obſerving, that ſhe ſhould ſoon have a beauffet entirely of her own contrivance; that ſhe had taken the models of all her plates and diſhes from Euclid,

and that ſhe had already got as far as the forty-ſecond problem: that ſhe had not two diſhes alike, nor four plates of the ſame faſhion; that her toilet was more eſpecially worthy of admiration; that ſhe had ſix or ſeven looking-glaſſes cut to the moſt curious dimenſions; and the apparatus of her dreſſing-table was ſo learnedly deſigned, that all her friends, even to her huſband, were become Geometricians by ſeeing her dreſs her head.—The wife of a Maſter of Requeſts applauds her friend, Madam Preſident, and ſhews the important ſervice the ſex derive from Geometry in the adjuſtment of their hair, the diſpoſition of their ribbands, ſtomachers, ruffles, tippets, and in the diſtribution of the white and red, &c. &c. &c. Our Author ironically compliments theſe ſilly women on their extravagance; and the Preſident's Lady afterwards made a diſplay of her jewels, in which our Author diſcovered a compleat ſyſtem of Aſtronomy. The diſpoſition of the diamonds in one of her trinkets, repreſented that luminous aſſemblage of ſtars commonly known by the name of the *Milky Way*. One pendant conſiſted of a large brilliant in the middle, and ſix ſmaller round it, in order to deſcribe the ſun and the ſix circumvolving planets: another exhibited an imitation of the greater and leſſer Bear, with their aſſociates. Our Author calculates, that theſe Ladies have each of them expended, at leaſt, forty thouſand crowns in theſe learned fooleries.

To this extravagance ſucceeds another not leſs ridiculous. An old Counſellor congratulates himſelf on being poſſeſſed of all the Operas from Cambert to the preſent time. No muſical compoſition has been printed or engraved for theſe forty years, but what he has procured. He boaſts that this paſſion is hereditary, and that he enjoys from his anceſtors twelve lutes, three guitars, twenty baſs-viols, ſix theorbos; that he has himſelf purchaſed fourteen german-flutes made by the beſt maſters, ſix bag-pipes, and eleven ſymbols; that within theſe ten years he has given at the rate of eight hundred franks a-piece for twelve Cremona violins, and four thouſand franks each for ſix of Ruker's harpſicords; beſides which he has ten french-horns, ſix hautboys, eight trumpets, and three harps.

This harmonical inventory being concluded, we are preſented with another perſonage, who flatters himſelf with being the moſt richly furniſhed Conchyologiſt in France, and the beſt verſed in this ſort of erudition. Our Interlocutor adviſes him to give, as ſoon as poſſible, a Conchyological Dictionary. All the ſciences, all the arts, all profeſſions have their Dictionaries, but there is not one yet appropriated to Conchyology! What will poſterity ſay of us?—Our Author exhorts this great Conchyologiſt at leaſt to conſign the diſcoveries he has made relating

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ing to this important ſubject, to the archives of the Encyclopedia. 'It is in this collection of perplexing definitions, it is in 'this immenſe magazine of human wit, it is in this ocean of 'literary treaſure, ſo ingeniouſly, ſo laconically develloped, 'that conchyological learning would appear with its proper 'eclat; and, conſider Sir, that this article, treated with perſpi-'cuity, will be equally new and intereſting.' The Conchyologiſt acknowleged, that he had already prepared ſome memoirs on the ſubject, in which he ſhews, that the carnation, crimſon, flame, roſe, and fleſh-coloured ſhells, are brought from the Red-ſea; that ſuch as have dark ſtreaks, and apertures, are produced in the Black; and that thoſe which are tranſparent, chryſtalline, or whitiſh, are found on the ſhores of the White-ſea, &c. &c. &c. 'Ah Sir!' cries our Author, 'nothing can be more judicious, nothing more truly Encyclo-'pedical.'

A young Magiſtrate next enters the liſts; his father had left him a valuable library, conſiſting of Reports, Decrees, Trials, Pleadings, and Digeſts. But theſe were fit only to confound the underſtanding of a Judge. He ſoon got rid of this ſubbiſh, and exchanged them for two hundred tulip-roots, and an hundred and fifty carnation layers. He ſpent fifteen thouſand francs in paling. Three colonnades, and four pillars on each ſide, in the niches of which were earthen ſtatues of a foot high, repreſenting Cupids, Savoyards, Nymphs, &c. and forty vaſes in the compartments of his parterre, gave his garden a beautiful appearance. Were not our anceſtors of the laſt age to be pitied, who could wait for a marble ſtatute by Girardon, or Coizevox, who could be contented with only two or three of their productions, and who would pay as much for one, as would purchaſe thirty of thoſe little elegant figures that at preſent ſo agreeably embelliſh our gardens?

Our Author treats with the ſame ſeverity an over-fondneſs for China-wares, Medals, Cabinets of Natural Hiſtory, Prints, &c. &c. However he does not cenſure theſe purſuits indiſcriminately. He acknowleges, that, in ſome caſes, they may be uſeful; but the particular objects of his reſentment, are fathers of families who run the hazard of ruining their children, for the ſake of gratifying their own whims.

This table of ridiculous expences is ſucceeded by a very different ſubject. The Parſon of the pariſh where our Author happened to be, led by the hand a poor country woman in tears: ſhe had loſt every thing by the death of an honeſt induſtrious huſband; ſhe held two children in her arms, and three more hung to the rags of her gown. The good Prieſt, with that elo-

quence which humanity and religion inſpires, implored the aſſiſtance of the congregation, in behalf of this unfortunate mother and her children. A confuſed murmur was preſently raiſed; the women had recourſe to their ſmelling-bottles; they ſaid, they were infected, and found themſelves ill. The men were offended at the impudence of the Parſon; and one delicate Gentleman had the aſſurance to rally the unhappy fecundity of the poor widow. The Prieſt, without being moved, went modeſtly round among the great people; many well-furniſhed purſes were diſplayed, but nothing more than halfpence were given. It came to our Author's turn. On all other occaſions he had conſulted his circumſtances, which, he informs us, were but ſcanty; but reſentment now made him generous; he had the courage to inſult the inſenſibility of the whole congregation, by diſtinctly counting twelve crowns into the Parſon's hand. 'Poor woman,' ſays he to the widow, 'I have myſelf experienced misfortunes; to that you owe the effort I have made in 'your favour. If you expect conſolation or aſſiſtance, apply 'to people of my condition, and remember, that thoſe who 'have the leaſt riches have always the moſt feeling.' The poor widow caught hold of his hand, and kiſſed it; and he himſelf could not refrain from weeping: a recompence worthy of the good action, and the only one that can pleaſe a tender heart!

Upon the whole, the Author of this piece certainly merits our commendation, as well for the matter as the manner of his performance; and it is greatly to be wiſhed, that his ſatires may be a means of reforming the abuſes they are deſigned to chaſtiſe.

FRERON.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For SEPTEMBER, 1757.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 1. *A Catalogue and Deſcription of King Charles the firſt's capital Collection of Pictures, Limnings, Statues, Bronzes, Medals, and other Curioſities; now firſt publiſhed from an original Manuſcript in the Aſhmolean Muſæum at Oxford. The whole tranſcribed and prepared for the Preſs, and a great Part of it printed, by the late ingenious Mr.* Virtue, *and now finiſhed from his Papers.* 4to. 10s. 6d. Bathoe.

FROM an advertiſement prefixed, we are informed, that 'King 'Charles's Collection was one of the moſt celebrated in Europe: 'he loved, he underſtood, he patronized the Arts. Not having the

'fortune

'fortune to find great Genius's in painting among his own ſubjects, 'he called over ſome of the ableſt Maſters of other nations—a com-'mendable partiality to foreigners, as it tended to enrich and inſtruct 'his own country. Nor did he confine his expence to Artiſts: be-'ſides ſeparate pieces, he purchaſed the celebrated collection of the 'Duke of Mantua;'—but of theſe, it ſeems, we can no longer boaſt the entire poſſeſſion. 'The ſtroke that laid Royalty ſo low, diſ-'miſſed the Painter, and diſperſed the royal Virtuoſo's collections: 'the firſt cabinets in Europe ſhine with its ſpoils. The few fine pieces 'thinly ſcattered through the royal palaces at home, are chiefly what 'were ſaved, or re-aſſembled, of King Charles's ſplendid gallery. 'The Dutch are reported to have purchaſed and reſtored ſome to his 'ſon. The beſt part are buried in the gloom, or periſhing in the 'vaults of the Eſcurial.'—Very true, and great pity it is that we loſt the pictures; but, however, we may conſole ourſelves with the reflection, that we preſerved our *Liberties*.

Art. 2. *A Letter to the Author of the Critical Review.* 8vo. 6d. Field.

This *Letter* was occaſioned by an angry *Hypercriticiſm* on the *Remarks* publiſhed in the M. R. for June laſt, upon Dr. Hunter's Paper concerning *Aneuriſms*. The perſon to whom the *Letter* is addreſſed, had, in very ſcurrilous terms, charged the Author of the *Remarks* abovementioned, with having violated truth, to ſerve the purpoſes of calumny and envy. From this heavy charge the Letter-Writer has endeavoured to clear himſelf; and this, at leaſt, muſt be allowed him, by every impartial Reader, that he writes with candour and good manners, and has ſhewn himſelf a thorough maſter of the ſubject in debate.

Art. 3. *A Compendium of the moſt approved modern Travels; containing a diſtinct Account of the Religion, Government, Commerce, Manners, and Natural Hiſtory, of ſeveral Nations. Illuſtrated and adorned with many uſeful and elegant Copper-plates.* 12mo. 4 vols. 12s. Scott.

This Abridgment of modern Travels is a ſuitable, and ſeems an intended, Companion to the Compendium of Voyages, mentioned in our fifteenth volume, page 193.

The travels here epitomized are thoſe of Mr. Maundrel—Dr. Shaw—Journey to Palmyra(*a*)—Dr. Richard Pocock, Biſhop of Oſſory—Alexander Drummond, Eſq; (*b*) — Dr. Alexander Ruſſel (*c*) — Mr. Hanway (*d*)—Biſhop Pontoppidon (*e*)—Frederic Lewis Norden (*f*)—Theſe are embelliſhed with, what may be thought by ſome, pretty pictures, though we cannot, without ſome limitation, ſubſcribe to their being *elegant copper plates*.

(*a*) See Review, vol. IX, p. 439. (*b*) Vol. XI, p. 198. (*c*) Vol. XV, p. 135. (*d*) Vol. VIII, p. 321. (*e*) Vol. XII, p. 447. (*f*) Vol. XV, p. 249.

Art. 4. *A general Treatiſe of Agriculture, both philoſophical and practical; diſplaying the Arts of Huſbandry and Gardening.—Originally written by* R. Bradley, *Profeſſor of Botany in the Univerſity of Cambridge, and F. R. S. and now not only methodized, but adapted to the preſent Practice, and improved with the late Theories, in many large Notes, wherein the ſeveral Methods of Culture, and the different Syſtems of Botany and Vegetation, according to the moſt approved Writers of the preſent Period upon theſe Subjects, are delivered.—With an Index and Cuts.* 8vo. 6s. Johnſton, &c.

Mr. Bradley's abilities in this branch of uſeful knowlege, are ſo generally known to thoſe whom intereſt or inclination may have led to the ſame ſtudies, that there remains little for us to ſay concerning this re-publication of a treatiſe which made its firſt appearance near thirty years ago. With reſpect to the improvements in the preſent edition, the Editors obſerve, 'that in the original work the different ſubjects of Huſbandry and Gardening, were indiſcriminately mingled together, and ſometimes in the ſame chapter. This fault,' they profeſs to have 'ſo far remedied, as to have ranged whatever belongs to either of the two ſubjects of Huſbandry and Gardening, in a *part* peculiar to each ſubject;' and to have 'made references from one place or chapter to another, by directions at the bottom of the page, maintaining thereby a chain of connection throughout the ſeveral parts of the work.' They moreover tell us, that 'the ſtyle, or manner of expreſſion, has been greatly amended.'

They further inform us, that they have pruned ſeveral of Mr. Bradley's hypothetical luxuriances, whereby they have made 'room for matters of greater moment, that were to be collected from other Authors upon the ſame ſubjects.'—That 'for this end they have conſulted all the modern Writers of reputation, and generally exhibited ſuch of their ſentiments as were moſt to their liking, upon a ſubject wherein they either found them different from thoſe of Mr. Bradley, or wherein they judged his treatment either obſolete or defective, and their doctrines might ſerve as a ſupplement to his.'—The Authors conſulted are, Mortimer Tull, Millar, Hales, Linnæus, and the Compleat Body of Huſbandry.

POETICAL.

Art. 5. BALAAM: *or, the Antiquity of Scandal.* 4to. 6d. Cooper.

This Lyric Ode contains a very poetical abridgment of the Hiſtory of Balaam's being employed to curſe the Children of Iſrael, on their approaching the territory of Moab. The Author has taken the liberty to vary a conſiderable circumſtance of the ſtory, by making an Angel pronounce that bleſſing on Iſrael, which Balaam really pronounced: though indeed by divine commandment, and expreſs inſpiration; which our elegant Poet probably thought a ſufficient authority for this variation.

Not-

Notwithſtanding he ſeems, by his title-page, and motto, to have little faith in the powers of Magic, which he thinks but equivalent to modern ſcandal; yet he gives a deſcription of a Necromancer, according to the powers vulgarly aſcribed to one; which we ſhall tranſcribe as a ſpecimen of his poetical expreſſion.

Balaam, the Wizard of the land,
Dreaded for necromantic power,
Cou'd each malignant ſtar command,
And blaſt the Hero's natal hour.
O'er matrons, and the virtuous throng
Of virgins chaſte, his poiſonous breath,
Like a black vapour paſt along,
Imbrued with fame-deſtroying death.
To pall the taſte, to dim the eyes,
Each philter'd juice he cou'd compoſe;
Cou'd make Avernal ſteams ariſe,
And taint the breath of Sharon's roſe.

We muſt obſerve, that when he terms Balaam, ſoon after, *corrupt with bribes*, he ſeems not to be literally ſupported in this by the text; which does not expreſly ſay, that he accepted the rewards of divination brought him by the Elders of Moab and Midian; but affirms, that, after his refuſing to go with them, he told the ſecond meſſengers, 'that if Balak would give him his houſe full of ſilver and gold, he could 'not go beyond the word of the Lord his God to do more or leſs.' Whence it ſhould ſeem as tho' Balaam's crime conſiſted rather in a ſecret diſpoſition, or wiſh, to earn the rewards and honours propoſed to him by Balak, than in any actual acceptance of them: and we may ſurely be allowed to apply to a Necromancer, what has been affirmed of the Devil himſelf; that—'bad as he is, he may be abuſed.' We apprehend too, that the immediately following expreſſion of 'INCESTED *by ambitious luſt*'—will appear, to moſt Readers, rather harſh and catachreſtical; but it is the only one of that ſort throughout the poem:—which concludes with the following prophecy of the temporal kingdom of Chriſt.

Thy ſons the promis'd realms ſhall ſway,
And ſcepter'd hands from Judah ſpring,
'Till time unrolls the diſtant day
When SHILOH ſhall again be King.

Art. 6. *A Collection of Odes.* By George Pooke. 4to. 1s. Cooper.

Specimen, from what Mr. Pooke entitles, *A Metamorphoſe on Diſſection of human Bodies.*

There is a crime! that now calls loud
For juſtice to be done,
Committed by a ſet of men,
That dig their ſpecie up in ſhroud,
To view a tongue, to view a heart,
To view an artery, or each part,

To

To anatomize human bones,
Thanedly'd with honour, ſhame to none,
Or ſome ſweet female's parts diſcloſe,
That bloom'd with beauty's virgin roſe.

I do ſuppoſe Surgeons ſhou'd know
All parts of the human body;
Then there are criminals to ſhew,
Who ſpoil'd the blood of ſomebody;
For criminals may have thoſe parts,
As eyes, as legs, arteries, hearts,
That anſwer the ſame end to know.—

When Pooke dies, bury him at leaſt
Foot twenty, below the ſurface:
If in a church-yard I ſhould lie
In Great-Britain,
Then write, Here's no diſſecting feaſt.——

How, in the name of Common Senſe, did this man ever get into print!

POLITICAL.

Art. 7. *A Letter from Sir William* ****, *Deputy Lieutenant of the County of* ****, *to his Tenants and Neighbours, ſeriouſly recommended at this time to the peruſal of all the people of England.* 8vo. 4 d. Cooper.

This Author evidently wrote with a ſerious view to reaſon the populace out of their riotous oppoſition to the raiſing the militia; and ſeems to have judiciouſly ſuited his language to the apprehenſions of thoſe for whoſe peruſal this pamphlet was deſigned: take the following ſpecimen.

'I know, that great reliance is juſtly had on the defence we may 'expect from our navy, and from the regular army which we have 'on foot, and on the natural bravery of all our people, which might 'in ſome meaſure be uſed on an emergency; but our army is only an 'handful in compariſon to theirs; and what is our fleet, or our army, 'to cover a coaſt of fifteen or ſixteen hundred miles, for this iſland is 'ſo much about, and more? How can we ſay in what part of that 'vaſt extent the enemy will chuſe to land? Do you forget the ter-'ror and conſternation into which a handful of raw and naked men 'threw us in the late rebellion? If then the French could eſcape 'our fleet, (which all men acquainted with the ſea know they very 'poſſibly might) and enter our country in an hoſtile manner; what, 'in ſuch a caſe, would you do? Is there a man among you, who 'would not ſay, that in ſuch a deſperate caſe he would never leave 'the defence of his wife, his children, his king, his country, and his 'religion, to any ſoldiers in the world? You would yourſelves go 'into the field. Had we an hundred thouſand men, you would ſtill 'be afraid, that, in ſuch an intereſting conjuncture, they were not 'half ſufficient. Not one of you would loiter at home; not one of

'you

'you would truſt his ſafety to any arm but his own. Such is the ſpi-
'rit which is, I am ſure, ſtill in my countrymen, and a noble ſpirit
'it is; but let not our ſpirit hurry us away from the conſideration of
'thoſe things, without which no ſpirit can be ſerviceable. You are
'going to fight when all that can be dear to you, as Engliſhmen, as
'men, as proteſtants, is at ſtake; you are going to fight for all this,
'without knowing what you are to do, againſt men whoſe trade it is
'to fight, and who have been perpetually exerciſed in the uſe
'of arms.

'There is a notion among you, and I truſt in God that you will
'never loſe it, that one of you is a match for any two Frenchmen.
'There are ſome people who are more pretending than wiſe, that
'affect to laugh you out of this opinion; but aſk theſe frenchified gen-
'try, nay, aſk the French themſelves, whether all hiſtory does not
'juſtify your opinion of yourſelves? Whether we did not beat them
'with half their number a *thouſand times over*, under the Black
'Prince? under Marlborough? under his Majeſty at Dettingen?

'I know very well that no men are naturally braver than you are;
'but in war, bravery is not enough; ſtrength is not enough; but there
'muſt be ſkill; there muſt be practice; or the greateſt ſtrength and
'courage ſignify very little. Suppoſe the ſtouteſt braveſt man in the
'country, who in his whole life had never taken up a cudgel, what
'figure, pray, will he make againſt a little ſlight fellow, that by long
'practice is a good cudgel-player? Undoubtedly a very poor one;
'though ſuch things do not require half the ſkill that goes to make
'a ſoldier. It requires certainly much ſtrength to make a good work-
'ing man; to plow, to mow, to threſh; but put a flail into the hands
'of the ſtrongeſt city bred man in England, let him hold the plow,
'or handle the ſcythe, though he be ever ſo ſtrong, he will make
'but a poor hand of it, I doubt. Juſt ſo is the ſtrongeſt braveſt man
'in the world to one who is trained to be a ſoldier. And every man
'muſt be, and ought to rejoice in being a ſoldier, when the real dan-
'ger of his country calls upon him, and ought to ſpare no pains to
'compaſs it. Therefore as your danger was well known, and as
'your deſire and courage to defend yourſelves were likewiſe well
'known, the wiſdom of the government has thought fit to make you
'capable of protecting yourſelves, by putting arms in an orderly
'manner into your hands, and by inſtructing you in ſuch a diſcipline,
'that when you are perfected in it, with the prayers of good men and
'the aſſiſtance of Almighty God, you need not fear any force that
'the enemy can ſend againſt you.

'This is the deſign of the militia; and it is nothing elſe. If any
'of you is baſe and degenerate enough to think the honourable pro-
'feſſion of arms a burthen to him, I muſt aſſure ſuch a man that my
'arguments are not at all addreſſed to him, nor to any like him,
'becauſe I ſhould think him no longer an Engliſhman; though I
'know that ſome ſuch people will have the impudence to make uſe
'even of the ſacred name of freedom, to juſtify their folly. But if
'you think it a reſtraint on your liberty, to be obliged to ſerve in this
'manner, I pray you to conſider, that there is not one of you that

'thinks

'thinks it a hardſhip on his child to ſpend a long and laborious apprenticeſhip of ſeven years, to learn a trade, of which a ſmall livelihood may be made; and will you then pretend to grudge a few days in the year, to learn a profeſſion honourable to all, abſolutely neceſſary to you, the only thing which can preſerve your lives, your properties, your religion, and your liberty, without which all the reſt is nothing? Will any man pretend to ſay, that he loves his country, that he values his freedom, who will refuſe to take a reaſonable pains to learn to defend that, and every thing elſe which an honeſt man ought to value?

'But I have ſomewhat particular to ſay to thoſe, who refuſe to put themſelves in a poſture to defend their country through their cowardice or lazineſs; and it is this, that if, through their baſeneſs, the enemy ſhould happen to prevail, which, for the ſake of better men, God forbid, they would, after having been ſtripped of that liberty which they preſume to abuſe, and know not how to value, they would be forced to bear thoſe arms for a tyrannical thankleſs maſter, which they now refuſe to employ in their own defence.

The Author owns there are many things exceptionable in the bill; but ſince it is paſſed into a law, he thinks, it ought to be complied with: and we may add, as improvements are made by degrees, it is to be hoped, that ſome future amendment may totally exclude the mob, by diſallowing all *hired ſubſtitutes*; which is only creating another ſtanding army. When our militia conſiſts of men of *principles* and *property*, acting for *themſelves*, we may then be ſaid to be ſecure in a well regulated national force, againſt all foreign enemies, or domeſtic invaders of our conſtitution.

RELIGIOUS *and* CONTROVERSIAL.

Art. 8. *The Catholic Doctrine of a Trinity proved by above an hundred ſhort and clear arguments, expreſſed in the terms of the Holy Scripture, compared after a manner entirely new, and digeſted under the four following titles,* 1. *The divinity of Chriſt.* 2. *The divinity of the Holy Ghoſt.* 3. *The plurality of perſons.* 4. *The Trinity in Unity. With a few reflections, occaſionally interſperſed, upon ſome of the Arian Writers, particularly Dr. S. Clarke. To which alſo is prefixed, a Diſcourſe to the Reader, on the neceſſity of faith in the true God, and upon diverſity of opinion. By the Rev.* William Jones, *late of Univerſity-College, Oxford, Author of, A Full Anſwer to* An Eſſay on Spirit. 8vo. 2s. Rivington.

It is a common obſervation, and abundantly verified by experience, that thoſe who undertake a great deal, generally perform very little. This obſervation is very ſtrongly exemplified in the performance now before us, where the Author undertakes to prove the *Athanaſian* doctrine of the Trinity, which he is pleaſed to call the *Catholic* doctrine, by above an hundred ſhort and clear arguments. Now he muſt be a clear-ſighted Reader, indeed, who is able to diſcern one clear argument,

ment in the whole piece. Mr. Jones has brought together and compared a variety of texts of Scripture, which he has most miserably and shamefully perverted; and this he calls short and clear argument: proofs of this assertion the Reader may find in every page of the pamphlet; we shall give an instance or two by way of specimen.

2 Cor. v. 20. *We are Ambassadors for Christ, as though God did beseech you by us. We pray you in Christ's stead be reconciled to God.* This text Mr. Jones produces to prove the divinity of Christ: his words are these. 'The usefulness of this text to our present subject, lies in these 'words—*In Christ's stead we pray, as though God did beseech*—where 'the interchanging of the names *God* and *Christ*, shews the *same per-* 'son to be entitled to *both*.'

Ps. lxviii. 56. *They tempted and provoked the Most High God.* 1 Cor. x. 9. *Neither let us tempt Christ, as some of them also tempted.*—'These 'texts,' says Mr. Jones, 'do both relate to the same rebellious acts 'of the Israelites in the Wilderness. In the former of them the per- 'son they tempted is called the Most High God; in the latter he is 'called Christ: therefore, Christ is the Most High God.'

To prove the divinity of the Holy Ghost, Mr. Jones brings the two following texts together: Matt. ix. 38. *Pray ye, therefore, the Lord of the Harvest, that he will send forth labourers into the harvest.* Acts. xiii. 4. *So they being sent forth by the Holy Ghost.*—'In this act 'of sending forth labourers,' says Mr. Jones, 'upon the work of 'the gospel, the Holy Ghost is proved to be the Lord of the harvest, 'to whom Christ himself has directed us to pray. Wherefore, they 'are not to be heard, who advise us to alter the third petition in the '*Litany*; a work to which I am sure the Holy Ghost hath not called 'us, and such as will never be consented to by any labourers of *his* 'sending.'—Such are the short and clear arguments which Mr. Jones 'produces in support of the Athanasian doctrine of the Trinity; and we will undertake, at any time, to produce five hundred such arguments, in support of almost any absurdity whatever. As for his prefatory discourse, it is of a piece with the rest of the performance, and shews clearly, that the Author has more faith than charity, more zeal than knowlege.

Art. 9. *The Time of Danger, and the Means of Safety; to which is added, the Way of Holiness. Being the substance of three sermons, preached on the late public fast-days.* By James Hervey, *A. M. Rector of Weston-Favell, in Northamptonshire.* 8vo. 1s. Rivington.

Though it may be supposed, that fast-sermons bear a general resemblance to each other, yet as Mr. Hervey, a gentleman so well known, and so much admired, is the Author of the three now before us, many of our Readers may be pleased with a short view of them.

The fast-days on which they were delivered have been now so long elapsed, that possibly the publication of them may be thought rather out of time: of this the well meaning Author was himself sensible. 'Should any one ask,' says he, 'Why does this Author publish

'his

'his ſermons when the faſt is gone and forgotten?—For this very rea-
'ſon, he publiſhes, that the faſt, though gone, may not be forgotten.
'That we may remember the ſins we confeſſed, and the miſeries we
'deprecated. Remember the vows of God, which are ſtill upon us;
'and the ſnares of death which are ſtill around us.'

The firſt of theſe religio-political ſermons is entitled, 'The Time 'of Danger,' and has for the text, Heb. xi. 28. From the view of the Jewiſh bondage in Egypt, and the plagues inflicted on the Egyptians, particularly the deſtruction of the firſt-born, the Author makes a tranſition to the preſent ſituation of Great Britain. The judgments of the Almighty are pathetically inſiſted on: have not earthquakes, ſays Mr. Hervey, ſhaken kingdoms, and rent the foundations of nature? and, is not the ſword of ſlaughter drawn?—The ſtate of our war with France is laid open, with a ſuppoſition that Spain may join with it againſt us; and the probability of a junction between the Auſtrians and a third popiſh power, which a note gives us to underſtand means Ruſſia, is hinted; not without a ſuſpicion that Rome may inſtigate the confederacy, at a time the moſt favourable for the proſecution of their purpoſe that their own zeal can deſire, to cruſh the proteſtant cauſe, and extirpate the proteſtant name: a plot which in another note Mr. Hervey informs us, was diſcovered by the ſagacity and activity of the King of Pruſſia. He adds, 'If that hero and his army 'ſhould fall before their enemies, what can hinder the execution of 'this horrid deſign? It may puzzle the acuteſt politician to aſſign 'any human means ſufficient to ſtand as a barrier.' The loſs of Minorca, of Oſwego, the death of General Braddock, the overthrow of his army, the defeat of Admiral Byng, his ſubſequent execution, with other ravages and loſſes, all combine to furniſh out the melancholy portrait.

He next conſiders our national ſins, ſome of which he particularly notices. 'Viſit,' ſays he, 'a man of war, you will think yourſelf, 'not in one of the bulwarks of our iſland, but in a little hell. Ob-'ſerve the Gentlemen of the Sword. Concerning the generality of 'them, you will have reaſon to aſk, are theſe Chriſtians? are they 'not incarnate devils?—And can we expect, that the infinitely pure 'God will go forth with ſuch hoſts? will he not rather become their 'enemy, *and fight* againſt them?'

The ſecond Sermon is entitled, 'The Means of Safety,' and is drawn from the ſame text as the former. In this Diſcourſe we are exhorted to come to Chriſt, as the means to avoid the evils mentioned before; but this, as if the ſubject was not ſufficiently ſtriking, is made to receive *illuſtration* from the rites of the Moſaic law. Our Author appears thoroughly warmed by his argument, which he purſues in a rhapſodical declamatory manner. He is extremely fond of ſimilies, and endeavours rather to enforce his exhortations by raiſing a panic, and then working upon that foundation, than by convincing his Readers from a rational appeal to their underſtanding.

A quotation from the third Sermon, entitled, 'The Way of Holi-'neſs,' preached from Ezekiel xviii. 27. will further illuſtrate what has been ſaid.

'If

'If while I am ſpeaking the *earth* ſhould *reel* to and fro, and be 'in ſtrong convulſions under your feet,; if it ſhould open its horrid 'jaws, and gape frightfully wide to devour you; not one in the aſ-'ſembly but would be greatly alarmed. How then can you be care-'leſs and unconcerned, when hell from beneath is opening her mouth, 'to ſwallow you up in endleſs perdition?—If this building was *rock-'ing* over your heads, and tottering on every ſide; if the beams were 'burſting, and the walls cleaving; you would be ſtruck with aſto-'niſhment*. And how is it, that you are under no apprehenſions, 'when the indignation of an Almighty God is ready to fall upon 'you; and worſe than ten thouſand falling mill-ſtones, grind you to 'powder?—If the French were landed, with an army of deſperate 'Papiſts †; if you were ſurrounded by thoſe barbarous enemies of 'your religion and country; if their ſwords reeking with Britiſh 'blood, were now at your throats; you would tremble for your lives. 'And will you not feel ſome concern for your ſouls, when the ſword 'of Omnipotence is ſharpned to cut you in pieces; when, for aught 'you know, it may be already unſheathed; may have received a 'commiſſion to give the fatal blow; and, before another hour paſſes, 'may actually ſtrike?—If the late diſtemper among the Cattle, ſhould 'turn to a *Plague* among men; if it ſhould ſweep away thouſands 'and ten thouſands to an untimely grave; if you ſhould ſee multi-'tudes of your neighbours *ſickening*, *dropping*, *dying*, on every ſide; 'certainly you would be terrified. How then can you remain unim-'preſſed, when the curſe of God is approaching you? when the 'curſe of God is hovering over you? when the curſe of God is rea-'dy to be poured out upon you; and turn all your delights into weep-'ing, wailing, and gnaſhing of teeth?'

In this manner are firebrands, arrows, and death hurled about by this pious Preacher: But ſurely a heart warmed, and convinced of the beauty of holineſs, by the powers of reaſon, will be a more acceptable ſacrifice in the ſight of the Almighty, than one that is only wrought on by terror, and ſubdued by abject fears.

* Poſſibly with a much *quicker*, and more *feeling* ſenſation.

† Of what nation does Mr. Hervey ſuppoſe the *army* to be compoſed? and of what religion are the French, that will land *with them?*

Art. 10. *The Sequel to the Pathetic Diſcourſe: or, An Anſwer to the Objections and Murmurs raiſed againſt that Pamphlet at Liſbon. Dedicated to the Portugueſe, by the Chevalier* d' Olivera, *Author of the Diſcourſe he defends. Tranſlated into Engliſh from the original French, by* W. H. Smith, *Gent.* 4to. 1s. Vaillant.

In the XIVth volume of our Review, p. 362, we gave an account of the *Pathetic Diſcourſe*, to which the preſent performance is the Sequel. This pamphlet contains a vindication of the former, againſt the objections of a popiſh Prieſt, who publiſhed, at Liſbon, a *prieſtly* account

account of the dreadful earthquake there, in 1755; wherein he has advanced many things which our Author controverts, and ſeems to have refuted in a very ſatisfactory manner. The Chevalier has likewiſe given us a copy of a letter written to him by his brother, a Prieſt, alſo, of Liſbon; in which he warmly expoſtulates with our Author, for turning Proteſtant, here, in England. This letter is followed by the Chevalier's anſwer; which is written in a plain, honeſt, and ſenſible ſtrain; and is dated *Kenniſh-town*, April 12, 1757.

MEDICAL.

Art. 11. *A Letter to a Phyſician, concerning the Gout and Rheumatiſm, wherein is* proved, *from Reaſon and Experience, that the former is curable in as ſtrict a Senſe as any other Diſeaſe. By* M. Mooney, M. D. 8vo. 6d. Printed for the Author.

The only proof offered by Dr. Mooney of the ſanability of the Gout, is a bold aſſertion, that he is poſſeſſed of a Noſtrum that will cure it. In ſupport of the efficacy of his medicine he recites five caſes; two of which only he himſelf terms gouty, the others are called Rheumatiſms. But as our Author has not thought fit to give the leaſt hint of the nature of this wonder-working remedy, we cannot think it neceſſary to enter further into the merits of a publication which has, in many reſpects, rather the air of a quack-bill than a medical diſcourſe.——Such as are inclined to know more of this Author's phyſical accompliſhments, may ſee other ſpecimens of them in the Review, vol. XIV. p. 586, ſeq.

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Cartes nouvelles des Iſles de Jerſey, Guernſey, & Aurigny, avec Un Memoire. Par M. Belin.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For OCTOBER, 1757.

The MONITOR; *or* BRITISH FREEHOLDER, *&c.* 8vo. 2 vols. 12s. Scott.

EVERY Paper-Warrior who brandiſhes his pen in *party* quarrels, is, by the courteſy of late days, ſtiled a *political* Writer, though very few, of the preſent age, have ſhewn themſelves acquainted even with the firſt rudiments of Polity.

The political Writers of our time, (for ſuch we muſt be content to call them) have taken different methods of diſplaying their reſpective talents. Some have exerted their powers in oppoſition to, others in defence of, the Miniſtry. But, perhaps, it may not be too hard a cenſure to conclude, that, in general, they ultimately agree in the purſuit of private advantage, however they may diſagree by adopting different means of attaining the partial end.

This diſagreement is often owing to a contrariety in their diſpoſitions. Men of a daring turbulent nature, eſteem it the ſureſt and ſhorteſt way—to *ſtorm* preferment, and force themſelves into places or penſions, by rude attacks on the Adminiſtration; others, of a more timid and cautious turn, ſue in the form of Panegyriſts, ſtudiouſly exaggerating miniſterial virtues, and ſubtlely endeavouring to palliate their defects. But this diverſity in their modes of writing, is not always the effect of their own natural choice, but may ſometimes be attributed to

their accidental connections. If they chance to be converſant with men of antiminiſterial principles, they may be perſuaded to eſpouſe that party, and employ their pens in the ſervice of oppoſition, contrary to their natural bent: if, on the contrary, their attachments are chiefly among Courtiers, they will commence advocates in the defence of the Adminiſtration, and uſe all their art to juſtify meaſures which their talents are better fitted to oppoſe.

It is for theſe reaſons that we can diſcover ſo little of ſyſtem in the productions of theſe time-ſerving Politicians; for as they are moſt of them unacquainted with politics, as a ſcience, conſequently they do not write from any eſtabliſhed principles of conviction. But wherever there is an appearance of a ſettled intention conſtantly to oppoſe the Miniſtry on one ſide, and to vindicate them on the other, ſuch Writers are to be equally ſuſpected and diſregarded; for we may be aſſured that they are not actuated by the impulſe of their own judgments, but meanly influenced by the paſſions and prejudices of their reſpective patrons.

We will not, however, be ſo hardy to affirm, that all are to be included within the limits of theſe diſtinctions: ſome, no doubt, may have been nobly directed by the generous patriotiſm they have profeſſed. But, without regard to their profeſſions, they ought all to be read with caution and diſtruſt; for it is as difficult to judge of the heart of man from his words, as to gueſs his name from his complexion.

It is owing to the nature of our conſtitution, that, of political Writers, the moſt numerous, and beſt received, have been ſuch as have figured on the ſide of oppoſition; for as our government inclines, perhaps too much, to the Democratic form, rude attacks upon men in power never fail of proving agreeable to the popular malignity. The people generally behold their ſuperiors with envy, and look upon Miniſters, in particular, as their declared enemies. Writers therefore, even of moderate abilities, will find it no difficult taſk to gain admirers among the common claſs of Readers, by a bold application of their talents for invective; for they are ſure to meet with a conſiderable majority prepoſſeſſed in their favour, inclined to believe whatever they advance, and prone to applaud *ſeditious* Dullneſs: whereas, they who write on the defenſive ſide, being obliged to combat againſt popular prejudice, their arguments gain little credit, and the Author is often condemned, without entering into the merits of the work. So ſenſible are Writers, who court profit more than reputation, of the advantage ariſing from an affectation of popularity, that it has lately become a favourite expedi-

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ent among them, to invite attention by addreſſing themſelves *to the* PEOPLE.

It muſt not, however, be inferred from theſe reflections, that we hold Miniſters of State as ſacred perſonages, or deem their conduct exempt from popular ſcrutiny. On the contrary, as their adminiſtration ought to be directed for the public good, and as every man may, or rather muſt, receive detriment from their miſconduct, it is juſt that every one ſhould be allowed to accuſe the ſuppoſed authors of their wrongs. We do not think that even the acts of the legiſlative body itſelf (where arbitrary power is, and muſt be, lodged) are free from public animadverſion; for, in our conſtitution, arbitrary power is not repoſed for the partial intereſt of a Monarch, or of an Ariſtocracy, but for the united benefit of the whole community: and therefore it is reaſonable that the people ſhould have the privilege of canvaſſing ſuch acts, and of expreſſing their ſenſe of injury, whenever they find themſelves aggrieved by the Legiſlature.

But whenever we exert that liberty, inherent in our conſtitution, of interfering with government, we ought to uſe it with ſuch cautious reſerve as not to intrench upon the bounds of decency, or violate the rules of ſubordination: for our freedom ought not to degenerate into that licentiouſneſs which has recommended the writings of our modern Politicians. We may expoſe the errors of the Miniſter with a becoming ſpirit, but we ſhould avoid all perſonal indignities againſt the man. It is unmanly to aſſume the licence of ſecretly inſulting thoſe in power with that rude and contumelious language which we dare not uſe to our inferiors, but at the hazard of our perſons. Such illiberal means deſtroy the end which every ſincere Patriot propoſes from oppoſition; and rather tend to confirm than to remove abuſes: for when men in high ſtation are treated with inſolence and deriſion, however the populace may be entertained, the conſtitution is injured. The people know no bounds, and make no diſtinctions. From being taught to contract a contempt for the *perſons* of Miniſters, they begin to deſpiſe the *office*; and, inſtead of diſliking *bad Rulers*, they gradually become averſe to government itſelf, and inſenſibly incline to Anarchy.

When we grow licentious in our attacks upon the Miniſtry, we ourſelves offend, by our manner of accuſing the offenders; and inſtead of engaging attention to the merits of the accuſation, we furniſh the accuſed with an opportunity of recriminating. While we endeavour to recall our Governors to a ſenſe of their duty, we ought not to tranſgreſs our own: but, at the ſame time that we urge our remonſtrances with the boldneſs be-

coming freemen, we ſhould preſerve the dignity peculiar to men of ſenſe.

Political Writers ought to be not only qualified as to their manner of writing, but they ought likewiſe to be amply ſtored with matter, and endowed with a faculty of digeſting it. They ought to be well ſkilled in the principles and nature of the different ſpecies of government, that they may be able to diſcover the tendency of every act of the Legiſlature, and know how far they are conſiſtent with the frame of the conſtitution. The knowlege of the different foundations and ſuperſtructures of government, is a principal requiſite; without which they may cavil, but will never convince. For unleſs they are well acquainted with the foundations of government, they will be unable to determine whether the ſuperſtructures are natural, and conformable to the balance, that is, to the ſtate of property in a nation; or whether the balance is unnaturally reduced to arbitrary ſuperſtructures. Through ignorance of theſe circumſtances they will neceſſarily reaſon in the dark, and will often exclaim againſt meaſures which, having the appearance of immediate or *partial* inconvenience, do nevertheleſs tend to correct and confirm the foundations of government. With the ſame blind zeal they will likewiſe applaud others, which, however grateful to the people, are yet incompatible with the fundamentals of the conſtitution.

They ought to be thoroughly converſant with hiſtory, both ancient and modern, not merely as a narration of events, but as a guide to ſyſtem: and they ought therefore to be capable of diſtinguiſhing between thoſe events which happened from accident, and thoſe which aroſe from policy. They ſhould have ſagacity to penetrate into the ſprings and motives of thoſe events, and to judge of their *neceſſary* conſequences. Thus, for inſtance, it will not be ſufficient for them to know, that in the time of Henry the VIIth of England, laws were ordained for ſtripping Noblemen of their Retainers, and that laws for Population, and ſtatutes of Alienation, were introduced, without at the ſame time conſidering the effects they produced by the change of our ballance, and attending to the motives which influenced the framers of thoſe laws.

Having premiſed this looſe ſketch of the qualifications and duty of a political Writer, we proceed to a conſideration of the *Monitor*. The papers wrote weekly under this title, are publiſhed in two octavo volumes. The ſecond volume, (the contents of which, as moſt recent in memory, we ſhall more particularly conſider) is dedicated to Mr. Pitt and Mr. Legge: and as the Dedication is penned in an unuſual ſtrain, we ſhall preſent the

the Reader with ſome extracts from it, upon which we ſhall make ſuch animadverſions as our judgment and impartiality may ſuggeſt. It begins thus.

'Pardon, Gentlemen, our boldneſs, in taking this freedom 'with your names, without your conſent or privity; for which 'we have nothing to plead, but a preſumption, that you are 'devoted to the ſame cauſe, and warmed by the ſame princi- 'ples, which theſe papers endeavour to ſupport and inculcate; 'ſuch preſumption is no more than common candour, when 'in your ſhort-lived adminiſtration, you gave early proof of it, 'in the plan you had adopted, and the meaſures you purſued. 'And we cannot doubt, but the nation would in a little time 'have felt its good effects, had your power been as great, and 'as laſting, as your fellow citizens wiſhed.

'The neceſſities of the times, and your conſeſſed abilities, 'which before called you to high places, have reinſtated you in 'thoſe places again: and ſhall we *queſtion*, whether you will 're-act the great part, as before, when the reaſons of doing it 'are more urgent than ever.'

Here it may not be improper to obſerve, that the Author is inconſiſtent with himſelf, he having already made this a *queſtion*; for, in No. 102, ſpeaking of the late coalition, which was then in agitation, he thus expreſſes himſelf.

'What good could be expected from the eloquence and up- 'right intentions of thoſe Patriots, who purchaſed the love of 'their country by declaiming againſt corruption in high places? 'by their oeconomy of the public money? by their oppoſition 'to foreign forces, ſubſidiary and continental intereſts? by pro- 'moting a more natural and effectual, leſs burthenſome, and 'leſs hazardous defence, than a ſtanding army, againſt invaſi- 'ons and rebellions? by enquiring into the loſs of Minorca? 'and by providing for the ſecurity of all the Britiſh dominions? 'ſhould they unite in council with men, whoſe power is formed 'on a faction, ſupported at the expence of the public treaſure, 'which is wanted to defeat the ſchemes of our enemies: whoſe 'ſyſtem for more than thirty years has been to ſecure a majority 'of the peoples repreſentatives, either by force or corruption, 'and to multiply places and penſions, which now amount to 'little leſs, than has been neceſſary to defray the whole expence 'of a war with France. Whoſe attachments to the German 'policy was putting them upon every invention to impoveriſh 'Britain, to pay large ſubſidies for the ſupport of foreign ar- 'mies, either to eat the bread of idleneſs, or to be ready for 'importation into this iſland, ſhould the people expreſs any

'diſſatisfaction at their diſtreſſes: who, on all occaſions, oppoſed a general militia, and declared in favour of an unconſtitutional ſtanding army: and who were deemed the certain cauſe of the loſs of Minorca, and of the miſeries to which our plantations have been expoſed.

'Might not ſuch a coalition induce a belief that he, who was adored for his upright profeſſions, had veered about; deſerted the cauſe of his country; adopted the German meaſures, was never ſincere in his enquiry after the authors of our misfortunes, and only attentive to ſerve ſome private paſſion or intereſt, in preference to his country?

'Where is the equity of ſuch a change? where is the wiſdom? if his conduct was juſt: 'if his reſolution was well grounded, not to act with men obnoxious for their meaſures; if he breaks that reſolution, his country muſt condemn him: his popularity will be loſt: and, as on the like occaſions, will not ſuch *Machiavilian* aſſociates know how to remove him from their cabals with contempt?'—

Perhaps, however, the Author was willing to forget theſe paſſages, finding that his prediction wasnot verified, and that the two Patriots have ſtill maintained their popularity, notwithſtanding the coalition. But to return to the Dedication.

'You need not, Gentlemen,' ſays he, 'be in any pain for your modeſty; we mean not to coſt you even a ſingle bluſh; for altho' part of our province be to commend merit, wherever we find it, yet we chuſe not to be premature, and ſhall leave it to futurity, to blow the full trumpet to your fame.'

We are ſorry to take notice, that notwithſtanding this declaration, the Author has been guilty of ſounding the trumpet to its higheſt note: the ſixty-ſecond Number, which ſuppoſes poſterity looking back to the preſent age, contains the following eulogy on Mr. Pitt.

'Notwithſtanding the almoſt univerſal degeneracy, one illuſtrious inſtance of diſintereſtedneſs and genius adorned thoſe times. A gentleman who repreſented the borough of Aldborough, Yorkſhire, of ſmall paternal eſtate, raiſed himſelf, by his amazing abilities, to one of the greateſt employments in the gift of the C—wn; which he held for ſeveral years with uncommon honour and integrity; but diſdaining to comply with meaſures injurious to his country, he, with a noble ſpirit of generoſity, reſigned his place, and devoted his talents to the ſervice of his fellow-ſubjects. Hiſtorians of all parties agree, in repreſenting this Gentleman as equal, in point of

'eloquence

'eloquence, to the Athenian or Roman Orator. But ſurely 'they exaggerate in their accounts, or that nobleſt of all arts 'muſt have loſt its power; for I do not find that the M——y 'of thoſe times, over-powered by the thunder of his elocution, 'ſacrificed any pernicious ſcheme they were intent upon; nor 'is there a ſingle inſtance recorded of the venal S—n—r drop-'ping the bribe, and becoming involuntarily honeſt.'

And in the ninty-ninth Number his diſmiſſion is thus pathetically bewailed.

'How ſmooth, how agreeable did every thing paſs with the 'public during the ſhort adminiſtration of Mr. Pitt, &c. how 'has every face mourned at their diſplacing! and therewith, at 'the loſs of their expectations to ſee the authors of our misfor-'tunes puniſhed; and to hear of ſome vigorous meaſures for 'recovering our rights, and humbling our enemies.'

We likewiſe find the following panegyric on Mr. Pitt and Mr. Legge, in No. 87, publiſhed during their adminiſtration.

'I am concerned alſo for the characters of that great and re-'ſpectable body of *country Gentlemen*, who never appeared to 'more advantage in their warmeſt oppoſition to the moſt ini-'quitous meaſures of corruption, than they do *now* in eſpouſing 'and ſupporting with ſuch zeal and affection, unplaced, un-'penſioned, unſought, the great and national plans of equally 'prudent expence and ſalutary oeconomy, moſt auſpiciouſly 'introduced by the preſent Miniſtry, to be extended as far as 'private wiſdom and virtue can reform public and general a-'buſes. Can there be a greater ſanction given to public mea-'ſures, than the unanimous approbation of men who ſhew, 'that the public good is their only aim; and that *Liberty*, not 'a ſpirit of contradiction, is the indefeaſible birthright of Eng-'liſhmen; that they ſeek and expect no places of profit or 'power, nor any private and perſonal emoluments, but propoſe 'only to enjoy their ſhare of the general proſperity.

'Indeed it is too natural and common for Miniſters to tread 'in each others ſteps, and we may not entertain very ſanguine 'hopes, whoever looks back but a few years to obſerve the con-'duct of ſome men, who had long been warm and loud in op-'poſing mal-adminiſtration; yet, when they ſucceeded, very 'ſhamefully fell off from all their profeſſions for the public, 'and with great alacrity travelled on in the ſame miry roads, 'till they became as dirty and beſpattered as their predeceſſors. 'But, I truſt, it will not be ſo now; I foreſee better things of 'our preſent deliverers, men of known abilities, of well-tried 'integrity, who have ſhewn themſelves ſuperior to the love of

'money, and not to be tempted by power; who were greater 'in their own minds, greater when out of place than any mi- 'niſterial power could make them. Diſtreſſed and ſunk, as they 'found all our affairs, puzzled and perplexed with neglect and 'error, they have had the ſkill and addreſs to free us already 'from ſome of our entanglements, and will ſoon, I doubt not, 'deliver us from all our abſurd connections. I congratulate my 'country upon the pleaſing proſpects that open before us, the 'chearful dawn of happier days begins to ſmile upon us, and 'we ſhall yet rejoice in ſucceſs and proſperity.'

This eulogy is further continued in No. 92, which appeared ſoon after their removal.

'Animated with ſuch a fair proſpect of retrieving the honour 'and credit of our country, every true Briton united to ſtrengthen 'the hand of government, committed to the care of men 'of approved judgment, frugality, and integrity; and to enable 'their Sovereign to revenge the indignity offered to his 'crown and kingdoms, and to reſtore peace to his people. 'Faction was ſtruck dumb. Loyalty and public ſpirit became 'the baſis of every meaſure. Foreign connections were not 'diſregarded: neither were they admitted to the chief attention 'of the Britiſh policy. Our allies were not to be deſerted: 'neither were we to enter as principals into their quarrels: they 'were to be aſſiſted, but not in ſuch a manner as to impoveriſh, 'weaken, and leave the Britiſh dominions defenceleſs, and our 'trade and navigation expoſed to certain deſtruction. Every 'meaſure ſuggeſted by prudence and oeconomy, was planned 'for redeeming this nation from the annual increaſe of taxes, 'and its enormous debt; a well regulated militia, to leſſen the 'number of ſtanding mercenary forces, and to ſecure the internal peace and ſafety of this iſland effectually, was ſtrongly 'recommended to the Legiſlature. Britiſh liberties were no 'longer to be truſted to the guardianſhip of Heſſian and Hanoverian hirelings. America became the chief object of our armaments; and France the pole to which all our councils and 'operations pointed. The ruinous ſyſtem of thoſe Miniſters, 'which requires the aid of placemen and penſioners, was deſpiſed and aboliſhed: the people were no longer to be oppreſſed with expedients to pay penſions and ſalaries to men who 'ſell their liberties, and eat the fat of the land, and the labour 'of the poor in idleneſs. A free Parliament, and a diſembarraſſed Miniſtry were ready to puniſh the authors of our troubles and loſſes, and to put the throne and the nation, the act 'of ſettlement, and the bill of rights, out of the power of ſycophants and traitors, to make them any longer the means of 'diſcontent, or the engines of faction: when on a ſudden for-

'row

'row appears in every face; a national gloom ſpreads over the 'countenance of every well-wiſher to his King and Country. 'The Miniſtry which deſerved ſo well of their country is no 'more.

'But here we may ſee an exemplification of the ancient Bri-'tiſh ſpirit; and of the wiſdom to diſtinguiſh between men diſ-'graced for mal-conduct, and of Miniſters diſplaced who have 'given ſtrong proofs of their ſteady attachment to the conſtitu-'tion of their country.

'We hear no reproaches, no imputations, no demands of 'juſtice: but, on the contrary, every city is ſtriving who ſhall 'firſt imitate the gratitude of London, with their freedom pre-'ſented to the firm Patriots, who have retired, content to make 'the approbation of their own conduct, one part at leaſt of 'their reward. And herein they exalt the character of the true 'Patriot; who, as he ſeeks for neither place nor honour, riches 'nor power, will never exchange the quiet of his mind, nor 'the good wiſhes of his countrymen, for all the advantages 'which can be tendered to make him forfeit either.

'The firm Patriot has a general benevolence towards the 'happineſs of his fellow-ſubjects, and cannot taſte that unna-'tural contentment of being alone eaſy, amongſt the many 'that are miſerable; eſpecially where they would be miſerable 'by his means. He is always ſure of this virtue, never to ſa-'crifice the public good to his private paſſion or intereſt. When 'the ſtate is endangered by faction, or by a depraved Miniſtry, 'he accepts of power, that he may exert it to the utmoſt of 'his abilities, for the welfare of his country. As in the ſenate, 'ſo in the cabinet, he dares to declare ſuch truths as Princes 'ſeldom hear from corrupt ſervants; and boldly at the council-'board oppoſes deſtructive meaſures. Rather than condeſcend 'to be the tool of unnatural aids and ſubſidies, he prefers the 'ſafety and love of his country to the favour of a court. He 'deſpiſes the menaces of an ignorant, debauched, and daring 'faction, that ſeek every opportunity to beſet the th——e. He 'tries his intereſt with his Prince for obtaining points purely 'national. He ſcorns to ſteal places in reverſion, or a patent 'from his agonizing country for himſelf or friends: and ſhould 'theſe virtues diſqualify him from holding his office any longer, 'he receives his diſmiſſion with humility and a perfect reſigna-'tion to the will of his Prince; carrying in his own boſom the 'reward of a good conſcience. He ceases not to employ in the 'ſenate, that eloquence which virtue alone can inſpire, to de-'tect and expoſe the falſe arts, and evil tendency of meaſures, 'propoſed by blind and wicked ſtateſmen.

'Behold

'Behold the two Patriots! invited by the citizens of Lon-
'don, to accept of their freedom, in token of the great regard
'paid by that city, and the whole nation, to their integrity, and
'love of their country: will not every honeſt man revere that
'public ſpirit, which a degenerate age cannot bear? And when
'clouds may ſtill thicken; when falſe pilots may have multi-
'plied the ſorrows of a ſuffering people; they may again im-
'plore his M——y to caſt his cares on ſervants, ſo faithful and
'obedient to their King and country, and able to avert impend-
'ing ruin.'—

From theſe extracts the Reader will perceive, that, though the *Monitor* profeſſes to leave it to futurity to blow the full trumpet, yet he nevertheleſs ſtands foremoſt among the premature tranſgreſſors who have anticipated the ſounding panegyric. But, perhaps, when the Patriots were out of place, or weak and unſettled in office, he thought his applauſe neceſſary to ſupport their ſpirits, and is, at preſent, willing to retract, leſt, now the ſpirit of oppoſition no longer gives a check to their power, *his* commendation ſhould too much inflate their vanity. Or, probably, he has recollected that it is, among many, an eſtabliſhed principle, that no man will praiſe a Miniſter of State, unleſs he is paid for his panegyric; and *that* conſideration may make him afraid to incur the imputation of venality: for, he ſeems to have a violent averſion to venal Panegyriſts, whom, in the next paragraph, he paints with the following hideous colours.

'The venal Panegyriſt is a creature of a quite different com-
'plexion: he leaves it not to time to fix the character, but an-
'ticipates it: he draws not from life, but fancy, and thus
'forms——

'*A faultleſs monſter, which the world ne'er ſaw:*

'and yet behold! the little vain ſoul ſwallows all down, as his
'own, and thinks it no more than a handſome likeneſs.

'You, Gentlemen, have too much good ſenſe not to ſee
'too much merit not to deſpiſe the feeble aids of ſuch proſtituted
'ſcriblers; you pierce through all their thin diſguiſes, and diſ-
'cern clearly, that in addreſſing others, they mean nothing but
'themſelves, and offer incenſe only to ſteal off with the golden
'cenſer.

'Away then, ye hireling tribe; to your dark and *dirty gar-*
'*rets*; wiſe and good men have no buſineſs for you; and thoſe
'marks of honour which many large communities, above all,
'the metropolis, have conferred upon theſe ſuppoſed friends of
'their King and Country, are worth more than a thouſand
'volumes of your laboured elogies! and ſhould their future

'conduct

'conduct demonſtrate, that the public opinions were well 'grounded, they will be the glory of the preſent age, and the 'wonder of times future; for next to the founding of nations 'is the honour of ſaving them from ruin.'

Juſtice obliges us to ſubſcribe to the truth and propriety of theſe ſentiments; but it is a great pity that they are conveyed in ſuch ſcurrilous phraſeology; for, (to uſe his own words) we may venture to aſſert, that the *dirtieſt* garret cannot be more dirty than the language of the foregoing paragraphs.

But it is remarkable, that the Author has affectedly ſtiled Mr. Pitt and Mr. Legge, the *ſuppoſed* friends of their King and Country. This expreſſion ſeems to be dictated by a ſpirit of contradiction; and, at a time when men are unanimous in expreſſing their confidence in the adminiſtration, he is ambitious of expoſing his ſingularity, by an affectation of diffidence. In the next page he ſays—'What is the voice of the nation, but 'the *echo* of your own *preſumed* integrity, *built* upon paſt facts?' The building of an *echo*, is a metaphorical mode of expreſſion, peculiar to the Monitor. But—to wave verbal criticiſm, which would be endleſs:———

Does it however become *him* to talk in this dubious ſtile? Ought *he* to ſpeak thus, who, but a few months ſince, complimented theſe Gentlemen—'As our *Deliverers*, men of known 'abilities, of *well tried* INTEGRITY, who have ſhewn them-'ſelves ſuperior to the love of money, and not to be tempted by 'power; who were greater in their own minds, greater when 'out of place, than any miniſterial power could make them.' Does not this character, of his own drawing, eſtabliſh them as men of *tried* and real, inſtead of preſumed and *ſuppoſed*, worth and probity? By what ſophiſtry can the Author reconcile ſuch palpable inconſiſtency?

We ſhall not do violence to the Reader's patience, by further ſtrictures on this uncommon Dedication. We will only ſay, that it is the coarſeſt that ever was addreſſed to Gentlemen diſtinguiſhed for taſte and learning. If the Author could not command a politeneſs of diction, at leaſt he might have expreſſed himſelf with decent civility; but he has rather aſſumed the inſolent air of a Dictator, than the genteel phraſe of a Dedicator: and tho' fulſome flattery indicates a ſervile diſpoſition, yet ſuch an unpoliſhed addreſs is a proof of inurbanity, and carries with it the marks of an illiberal education.

Luckily, however, Mr. Pitt and Mr. Legge are too much occupied to give ear to this bouncing Dedication; which, will no more engage their attention, amidſt ſo many important concerns,

concerns, than the exploſion of a cracker would be heard amidſt the roar of a broadſide.

It is needleſs to trouble the Reader with further ſpecimens of the Monitor's political abilities; and we ſhall not heſitate to declare, that, in our judgment, he is by no means equal to the character of a Political Writer. The matter contained in his two volumes might be comprized in a twelve-penny pamphlet; as many of the numbers are only echoes of the preceding ones. He appears to be but ſlightly converſant in party diſputes, and his knowlege, in general, of ſtate-controverſy, ſeems to be gleaned from coffee-houſe diſputations.

He ſometimes affects to be witty, but his attempts are always imitative, and extremely awkward: the following ſpecimen will, perhaps, decide his pretenſions to wit.

Leather-Market, Leaden-Hall, Tueſday, Auguſt the 3d.

'THE price of Leather is conſiderably *fallen*, which, as 'we apprehend, is owing to a diſagreeable report, pro-'pagated without Temple-Bar, that *Leather-Shoes* will ſoon be 'out of faſhion, and that next Winter it will be eſteemed very '*unpolite* to appear in any auguſt, courtly, or genteel aſſembly, 'without either *Wooden Shoes*, or *Whiſkers*.'

As to his ſtile, it is, in general, very incorrect, and is ſometimes rendered ridiculouſly bombaſt, by ſuch quaint expreſſions, and incongruous metaphors, as nothing but the moſt confuſed imagination could ſuggeſt. There is, however, a boldneſs, we had almoſt ſaid a rudeneſs, in his diction, which the injudicious may miſtake for ſpirit.

His modeſt eſtimation of his own merit, will appear by an extract from his ſeventieth Number, which, according to the licence of Eſſay-Writers, we may ſuppoſe him to have addreſſed to himſelf.

'The expectations of the public from the conduct of your 'paper, have ſo far been anſwered, that we have ſeen the good 'effects of thoſe great truths and fair arguments, which you 'have publiſhed, taking place by the removal of ſome men, 'charged with the diſhonour and loſſes which have tarniſhed 'the Diadem, and ſpread ſorrow throughout the Britiſh domi-'nions. How they, who at ſuch a criſis, when the exigence 'calls aloud for an alteration of meaſures as well as men, ſuc-'ceed to their power, ſhall work Britannia's redemption, and 'ſteer wide of thoſe quickſands, which have ſwallowed up her 'riches, and clear of thoſe rocks, which hitherto have ſhip-'wrecked her Pilots, is now the taſk impoſed upon you, if you 'hope

'I hope to maintain the character of that indepency with which 'you ſet out; and, as far as my judgment reaches, I think, 'you have deſerved; by commending good men and good mea-'ſures, and cenſuring bad ones without reſpect of perſons.'

Whether he has yet performed the taſk impoſed upon him, of inſtructing the Miniſtry how to work *Britannia*'s redemption, we will not preſume to conjecture, as we cannot boaſt of being privy to any ſecret negociations between the Monitor and the Adminiſtration.

But we beg leave to remind him, that the omnipotent *Demagogue* who addreſſes himſelf in *letters to the* PEOPLE, has diſputed with him the honour of procuring the removal of the old Miniſtry; therefore it is incumbent on him to re-aſſert his claim. A conteſt between two ſuch extraordinary Rivals, for the prize of Vain-glory, muſt be highly intereſting and entertaining to the public: for their parts are ſo equal, that it will be difficult to find throughout the whole literary Republic, two candidates for fame ſo nearly matched as this conceited *Par Nobile*.

A Voyage to the Eaſt Indies, with Obſervations on various Parts there. By John Henry Groſe. 8vo. 5s. Hooper.

IT is generally agreed, that no kind of writing is more entertaining and inſtructive than voyages and travels. When men of ſenſe, and taſte, and a liberal education, who have viſited foreign countries, oblige the world with the reſult of their obſervations and experience, their works are deſervedly conſidered as treaſuries of uſeful knowlege. The number of theſe, however, is extremely ſmall. The greater part of modern voyagers have been men of low education, and confined abilities; and who from vanity, or neceſſity, have been induced to publiſh. There are even ſprung up among us, of late years, travellers of another kind, who, immured in garrets, compile voyages, like dictionaries, from the works of others. Theſe often, from an indiſcrimate adoption of truth and falſhood, conſiſtent facts, and glaring abſurdities, produce medleys, equally calculated to tire the reader's patience, and miſlead his underſtanding. The voyage now before us, ſeems to be rather of the middle claſs. The Author has viſited Bombay, and gives a pretty exact deſcription of that iſland, and ſome places adjacent. His repreſentations of the Gentoos, Moors, and Indian Portugueſe, are tolerably juſt, ſo far as they can be ſuppoſed to fall under the obſervation of a young man who does not pretend to have

have ſeen more than one or two ſea-ports of an extenſive continent. He ſeems, however, extremely oſtentatious of oriental learning, and of aſſuming, on every occaſion, the Politician, Philoſopher, or Noveliſt: but impartiality obliges us to obſerve, that his remarks are often trite or frivolous; his relation of events, verboſe and unaffecting; his language frequently debaſed with low, or ſtiffened with affected expreſſions, and equally devoid of harmony or preciſion. But, to talk in his own ſtile, as we *indignate lumping concluſions*, we beg leave to point out a few inſtances of this gentleman's ſtrange ambition to *new-fangle* his native tongue with a multiplicity of new-coined words, and uncouth phraſes; ſuch as, *expatriation*, *peſterable*, *exhauſtment*, *omnimodal*, to *fleſh his adherents*, *diſaffect the air*, *a ſpread of conqueſts generalizing a name*, and many others of the ſame kind. This practice we look upon to be the more unexcuſeable, as we cannot diſcover any newneſs or variety of matter or ſentiment, that could not as eaſily have been expreſſed in plain Engliſh. But it has very judiciouſly been obſerved, that this proneneſs to innovation oftener indicates an Author's limited knowlege of his own language, than any inſufficiency in the language itſelf to expreſs *his* ideas.

It may be urged, that as elegance of ſtile is not, generally, to be expected in the narration of a voyage, works of this kind ſhould naturally be exempted from criticiſm. True;—and the preſent performance might have claimed this privilege, had Mr. Groſe, in order to enlarge our ſtock of uſeful knowlege, only related matters of fact, or ſimply deſcribed what he had ſeen; but he is to be conſidered in a very different light: far from confining himſelf to ſo humble a province, he dives into the deepeſt myſteries of Zoroaſter or Zaratooſht, diſcuſſes the moſt abſtruſe points of pagan theology, and ſhews himſelf no leſs a learned *Mahumetan*, than an illuminated *Parſee*. Surely then an Author who thus obliges the public *with the reſult of his own perſonal converſations with the deſcendents of the antient Magi*, ought not ſo far to imitate theſe his preceptors, as to unfold their myſteries in *broken Engliſh*.

We come now to conſider the *matter* of this work. And here let it be obſerved, that curioſity muſt not expect to be often gratified with novelty, as the Author declares, 'That not to 'deſcribe the origin, ſituation, and climate of places well known, 'might be deemed an imperfection in his plan.' But what chiefly ſwell the ſize, and, we may venture to affirm, conſtitute, in the Author's opinion, the principal merit of the book, are his various reflections, together with his religious and mythological diſcuſſions, which he frequently endeavours to enliven with hiſtorical anecdotes, and eaſtern ſtories.

In the first chapter he begins with gravely informing us, that on a long voyage, sea-stores, and other necessaries, are extremely convenient! then follows a description of sharks, flying-fish, noddies, boobies, &c. only familiarly known to gentlemen that use the sea. In the next chapter he arrives at Johanna, and gives an account of that and the neighbouring islands. The following chapter lands him safe at Bombay, his port of destination.

The rest of the volume, consisting of 363 pages, contains, first, a description of Bombay, and some places adjacent; an account of its government, public works and buildings; an history of the Marattas, and of Conajee Angria, and his successors; an account of Surat, and the Mogul government; a representation of the state of the Roman Catholic religion in India, with that of the Moors, Gentoos, and Parsees. The whole is concluded with two chapters; the one containing miscellaneous observations in relation to the different inhabitants, customs, productions, and climate of India, and the last exhibiting summary reflections on the trade to that part of the world. But, to enable our Readers to judge for themselves, in regard to the merits of this performance, we shall insert the following extracts:

In page 76, Mr. Grose gives the following account of Bombay. 'When the English first took possession of this island, they 'found, in that part of it which chiefly commands the harbour, 'an old fortified house, which was the residence of the Portu- 'guese governor; and though this house might very well have 'served for other valuable uses, they were tempted to make it 'the center-house of the castle which they built round it. It is, 'however, impossible to conceive, in every sense, a more in- 'commodious structure; and the same, or, perhaps, less cost 'than the reparations and additions have stood in to the com- 'pany, would have built a much better mansion new from the 'ground. Yet the false œconomy of preserving this old piece 'of building, which need not to have been demolished, or 'thrown away, had such effect, that it hindered the English 'not only from consulting a more commanding situation to the 'harbour, which is that of Mendham's Point, but made them 'blind to the disadvantage of the fort built round it, being over- 'looked by an eminence near it, called Dungharee point, on 'which there is only a SMALL *untenable* LITTLE Fort, of *no* 'defence, and which serves now for the town-prison, for debtors 'or criminals.

'The castle, however, itself deserved a better situation, being 'a regular quadrangle, well-built of *strong*, *hard* stone. In one 'of the bastions of it that faces Dungharee-Point, there is a 'large tank or cistern hollowed in, which contains a great quan- 'tity of water, that is constantly replenished by the *stationary* 'rains.

'rains. There is a well, too, within the fort, but of which the 'water is not extremely good, and liable to be dried up in the 'heats. And by the way be it obſerved, that the water in ge- 'neral on the iſland is not reckoned the beſt; and has been 'given for a reaſon why the Gentoo merchants were not ſo for- 'ward to ſettle on it. Water being a point of great conſequence 'with them; for, as they drink no ſpirituous liquors, they are 'very curious and diſcerning in the taſte and qualities of 'waters.

'Some years after, as the town grew more populous, it was 'judged expedient to add the ſecurity of a wall round it; and 'even then they neglected to take in, as they might have done 'by a ſmall extenſion, that dangerous poſt of Dungharee, which 'evidently now commands both town and caſtle. The cur- 'tains, however, between the baſtions, were of little more 'ſtrength or ſubſtance than a common garden wall: but there 'has lately been added, at a great expence, a ditch that en- 'compaſſes the wall, and can be flooded at pleaſure, by letting 'in the ſea, at which the ditch terminates on two ſides, ſo that 'the town is thoroughly ſurrounded with water. It is now one 'of the ſtrongeſt places by much that the Company has in India, 'and conſidering the commodiouſneſs of its harbour, might not 'be improperly made their capital place of arms, in the ſame 'nature as Batavia ſerves the Dutch. Eſpecially too if the 'envious Portugueſe had not detained us from that fertile large 'iſland of Salſett, which would have compleatly ſerved for a 'granary to it. Inſtead of which, their ſupine indolent govern- 'ment ſuffered the Jeſuits, who are better known in India by 'the appellation of Pauliſts, from their head church and con- 'vent of St. Paul's in Goa, to get by degrees, and with their 'uſual arts and management of the laity, by much the greateſt 'part of that iſland into their own hands, and which they kept 'wretchedly fortified, ſo that it fell an eaſy conqueſt to the Ma- 'rattas, and at the ſame time we loſt an uſeful barrier between 'us and that rapacious people.'

His account (page 113) of the avaricious folly of the Jeſuits, which occaſioned the loſs of the fruitful iſland of Salſet, deſerves to be inſerted, as it, more nearly than we could wiſh, reſembles the conduct of certain bodies of men amongſt ourſelves.

'When this iſland then was loſt to the Portugueſe, and con- 'ſequently the Jeſuits, who were owners of much the largeſt 'part of the land, were the greateſt ſufferers; none were, how- 'ever, leſs pitied, even by the Portugueze themſelves, eſpecially 'by thoſe from whoſe families their arts had extorted their poſ- 'ſeſſions. Their inſolence too was as boundleſs as their ava-

'rice, which laſt has prevented the iſland from being fortified, 'whilſt it was yet time, from their backwardneſs to contribute 'their quota of the charges. Thus, the more they had to loſe, 'the leſs were they willing to pay towards ſecuring it.'

After obſerving, page 260, 'that one would imagine they, '[the Portugueſe] had pillaged every other religion of every 'thing that was abſurd, ridiculous, or deteſtable, to compoſe that 'monſter of their own,' he proceeds, 'I ſay nothing of what 'has been already made ſo clear, of their borrowing and adulte-'rating, oftenеſt for the worſe, from the antient Heathens, who 'themſelves very probably derived many of their rites and ce-'remonies from the Eaſt, but ſhall only mention a few particu-'lars, wherein the Orientaliſts challenge ſeveral points of the 'Roman Catholic worſhip, as originally belonging to them, 'and which, perhaps, a chronological diſcuſſion of the ſpecific 'time in which they were adopted into that church, would more 'manifeſtly clear up.

'The roſary, for example, is pretended to have been but an 'imitation introduced by ſome vagrant monks, of the Tezbuſh, 'or Mahometan beads, on which thoſe of that ſect repeat their 'Biſmillah, exactly in the ſame ſtile as the Papiſts do their Pa-'ter-noſters, and Ave-Marys; and even this cuſtom comes ori-'ginally from the Indian Gentoos.

'Their mendicant fryers ſeem but a copy, and a moſt wretch-'ed one, of their mendicant Joguys, whoſe abſtinence from all 'animal food, contemplative life, auſterities and macerations, 'far exceed whatever their moſt famous aſcetics ever ſo much as 'attempted. From them too the Mahometans borrowed their 'inſtitution of Faquirs, or holy beggars, ſo that both Europe 'and Aſia owe all that *peſterable* ſwarm of vermin, the monks 'of both thoſe religions, to a perverted imitation of the Gentoo 'religion in that point.

'As to the matter of idols, it is great impudence in the Ro-'man Catholics, to reproach the Gentoos with theirs, or to 'imagine, that the frivolous diſtinction in words, between the 'actual worſhip of them, or of the uſing them only as helps to 'their memory in their devotion, can either be underſtood or 'not rejected by them, when they ſee theſe words contradicted 'by their actions, and the images in their churches manifeſtly 'applied to and invoked, as if they were living repreſentatives. 'Can they then be blamed, if idols for idols, they prefer their 'own, eſpecially too as they infinitely leſs nonſenſically, inſtead 'of exhibiting them in ridiculous human forms, ſuch as, for 'example, a woman gorgeouſly dreſſed like a curtezan, with 'a fruz bob wig, with a crown on it, and a large hoop-

'petticoat reaching down to her feet, tied round the neck in 'ſtead of the waiſt, and a little child in her arms, frame their 'images in a hieroglyphical ſtyle, of which the oddity and 'monſtrouſneſs are ſomewhat ſalved by the meaning couched 'under them, and by their *diſclaimer* of attempting to repre-'ſent the Divinity under any thing of human likeneſs, further 'than to convey inſtruction in their mythology? Thence the 'idol of a man with an elephant's head, of another with a 'number of hands, *denotative* of his various power, and hold-'ing ſome myſterious or emblematical thing in each. All 'which the Bramins do not want for the ſenſe to oppoſe to the 'idols of the Papiſts, than whom moſt certainly, ſuch as they 'are at leaſt in India, Chriſtianity cannot have greater enemies, 'ſince whatever deforms the divine ſimplicity of the goſpel, 'and by evidently worldly-intereſted, abſurd, and cruel adulte-'rations, tends to render a religion ridiculous and deteſtable, 'muſt naturally weaken its force of perſuaſion, and even in-'volve in its condemnation, though but for having the ſame 'name as Chriſtians, the purer reformed. Thus, for example, 'the Mahometans cannot, with reſpect to the Proteſtants, 'overcome that inveterate prejudice they have conceived of 'their being God-eaters, as they emphatically and opprobriouſly 'nick-name the Chriſtians in general, and accordingly *lump* 'conclusions againſt them all. And as to the Papiſts endea-'vouring to explain away the horror created by that idea, by 'the word Myſtery, a word of which too they have a perfect 'conception, having one in the Arab language, *gheib* (*occult*) 'that anſwers to it, they treat it with the utmoſt ſcorn and con-'tempt, as never allowing it to enter into any definition of the 'Supreme Being, concerning whom they eſteem all myſterious 'expreſſions to be a prophanation of the ſacred ſimplicity of his 'exiſtence, and at moſt, and hardly ſuffer them to be employed 'in accounting for ſome of the fabulous viſions of their prophet, 'as contained in the Alcoran, which however the wiſer and 'learneder part of the Mahometans are far from either reſpect-'ing or believing.'

The above, we apprehend, is a candid ſpecimen of this Author's manner; which, however unſuitable to our own notions of fine writing, may, nevertheleſs, meet with its admirers.—Mr. Groſe employs alſo a great many pages to prove, that the Perſian Mythras, Paphian Venus, and Indian Jaggernaut, were the ſame deity, viz. the generative power, worſhipped under different names. Thoſe who have a taſte for theſe, and other diſquiſitions of the ſame kind, and can perſuade themſelves, from the general idea we have given of this Gentleman, that he is ſufficiently qualified to clear up abſtruſe points of heathen mythology, are referred, for further information, to the work itſelf.

Britain's

Britain's Commercial Intereſt explained and improved; in a ſeries of diſſertations on ſeveral important branches of her trade and police: containing a candid enquiry into the ſecret cauſes of the preſent misfortunes of the nation. With propoſals for their remedy. Alſo the great advantages which would accrue to this kingdom from an union with Ireland. By Malachy Poſtlethwayt, *Eſq; Author of the Univerſal Dictionary of Trade and Commerce, &c. In two volumes.* 8vo. 12s. Browne, &c.

THE nature of our office, as Reviewers, often brings us into a diſagreeable dilemma. To commend, is certainly the moſt generous, and we may with truth add, that we find it the moſt pleaſing, part of our province; but it is nevertheleſs our duty to cenſure, when the demerits of a work require reprehenſion.

Upon a conſideration of Mr. Poſtlethwayt's performance, we find it difficult to give our opinion, ſo as to maintain the reſpect we are inclined to ſhew the Author, and at the ſame time preſerve the juſtice which we owe to the public.

When we reflect on the induſtry and application which he muſt have employed to attain ſuch a vaſt extent of commercial knowlege, he undoubtedly demands the full tribute of our applauſe, and it is with reluctance that we obſerve his defects; but when we conſider the negligent, tedious, and uncouth manner in which he conveys the materials he has collected, his nauſeating egotiſm, and his unbounded vanity and preſumption, we cannot ſuppreſs the ſeverity of our animadverſions.

This work is divided into two volumes. The firſt is dedicated to the Duke of Rutland; and the dedication concludes with the following extraordinary paragraph:

'Beſides the particulars herein nakedly exhibited, and openly animadverted on, your Grace will pleaſe to obſerve, that I have a reſerve of many things very imprudent to be thus publickly diſcuſſed. This I could not do without manifeſt injury to the nation, becauſe it would give more advantage to the enemy than all their fleets and armies, by putting it in their power to defeat the execution of what would prove ſo detrimental to them, and ſo beneficial to this kingdom: and therefore I hope your Grace will prove the happy inſtrument of cauſing all my endeavours to ſerve the nation to be laid properly before the adminiſtration, when the ſame ſhall be ſettled; humbly apprehending that they will be found, on due examination, to be calculated for the honour and intereſt of his Majeſty, and his kingdoms.'

As we are told, that the diſcovery of theſe invaluable ſecrets would be *of more advantage to the enemy than all their fleets and armies*, he is certainly in the right not to communicate them to any but thoſe who have power to put them into execution; yet we cannot help obſerving, that it is rather uncivil in him to tantalize the Reader, by raiſing a curioſity which he does not intend to gratify. We take the liberty likewiſe to remind him, that he is mortal; and therefore we hope, that he will not be ſo unkind to his country, as to ſuffer his diſcoveries to die with him. In the mean time we humbly propoſe, that prayers may be offered up in all churches and chapels, for the preſervation of ſo ineſtimable a life.

Theſe two volumes contain a ſeries of diſſertations. In the firſt, he recommends the improvement of the landed intereſt, by taking more land into cultivation, till we ſhall be capable of gradually diminiſhing our taxes, by the gradual leſſening of our public debts, by which he apprehends we may be enabled the ſooner to *compete* with France; and by which means likewiſe he conceives, that all future ſcarcity of grain, and other proviſions, in the kingdom, may be effectually prevented, in order to render the neceſſaries of life and labour cheaper, that arts and manufactures may become ſo, in conſequence thereof.

He thinks that the natural way of lowering the rents, is to put ſuch a quantity of waſte land into cultivation, as may make farms abound; and he is of opinion, that owners of eſtates would be no loſers by the fall of rents, becauſe, as he apprehends, all commodities would fall in proportion, ſo that gentlemen would loſe nothing but the nominal ſound of ſo much per annum. He conceives likewiſe, that the increaſe of the produce of the land would diffuſe property, and deſtroy that inequality, which is the ſource of depravity, and general poverty.

His reaſoning throughout this diſſertation, is ſpecious and captivating; but it remains a doubt with us, whether his ſyſtem is not founded too much on republican principles. It is thought that the ſeeds of a commonwealth are ſtrongly rooted in our conſtitution; and his ſcheme for the diffuſion of property, may imperceptibly tend to the introduction of an Agrarian, and ſhake the ſuperſtructures of our government: which, at preſent, ſeem to incline too much towards the popular ſide.

In Henry the Seventh's time, the land in poſſeſſion of the Nobility and Clergy was thought to overbalance that held by the people, in the proportion of four to one; but by the reduction of the Nobility and Clergy, the lands in poſſeſſion of the people came afterwards to overbalance thoſe held by the Nobility at leaſt nine in ten; and they have ſince continued to increaſe to

a degree perhaps inconſiſtent with the frame of our conſtitution: ſo that if it be an axiom in politics, that dominion will always follow the balance of landed property, we need not be ſurprized that the ſpirit of Democracy is ſo prevalent among us, and that the people preſume occaſionally to give laws to the legiſlature itſelf.

In the ſecond diſſertion, he has 'taken under conſideration 'the produce and trade of England, and compared them with 'thoſe of Scotland, and Ireland, and the Britiſh plantations; 'and alſo with each other, from a view further to enforce the 'reaſonableneſs and neceſſity of England's falling into the mea'ſures before recommended; ſhewing otherwiſe, that her lands 'and her trade are not leſs likely to be ruined by her own do'minions than byforeign rivals.'

This diſſertation contains ſome ſtriking reflections on the trade of the three kingdoms, particularly with reſpect to the woollen manufacture, and the miſchievous conſequences of expoſing the Iriſh to the temptation of clandeſtinely exporting their unwrought wool to France.

In the three following, he gives a ſummary of various general principles of agriculture, and has entered upon the point of eſtabliſhing public and private granaries.

In the five ſucceeding ones, he has—'examined into the eſ'ſential connections of trade between Great Britain and Ireland, 'and the Britiſh plantations, and pointed out ſuch productions, 'manufactures, and trades, as England, Scotland, Ireland, and 'the Britiſh plantations ſhould chiefly cultivate; in order to ri'val and *compete* with foreign nations, and not with each other; 'repreſenting meaſures neceſſary to be taken for the joint proſ'perity of the commerce and navigation of them all.'

He judiciouſly obſerves, in the courſe of theſe diſſertations, that the three kingdoms ſhould not interfere with each others ſtaple commodities; but that we, for inſtance, ſhould leave the linen manufactures to Ireland and Scotland, and that they, on the other hand, ſhould encourage the woollen trade of England, which is our ſtaple commodity. He alſo takes notice, that our colonies ſhould be reſtrained from manufacturing; and likewiſe ſtrongly recommends the planting of timber in England.

In the four following diſcourſes he has conſidered the neceſſity and advantage that will ariſe to Great Britain in general, from a proper union between her and Ireland.

He is of opinion, that if the Iriſh are encouraged in conſequence of an union, that we ſhall be able to recover the woollen trade from the hands of our rivals, for that then the Iriſh will

will run no wool into France or Holland; and he ſhews the bad conſequences of the prohibition of Iriſh cattle, and the exportation of manufactures made of Iriſh wool.

In the fifteenth diſſertation, he recommends the annexing the Iſle of Man to Great Britain. This, he apprehends, would be laying the axe to the root of the infamous practice of ſmuggling, carried on from thence; and which, as he tells us, is ſuppoſed to amount to a loſs of 700,000l. per annum.

In the three ſucceeding diſcourſes, he conſiders the commercial ſtate of our concerns in Europe, and takes 'a ſuccinct view of the 'conſtitution of the Britiſh plantations in America,' and of the 'condition wherein they have many years been; pointing out the 'chief and diſregarded cauſes of their becoming the preſent ſeat 'of war; with reflections how they may recover their ſtrength 'and ſtability, and become a match for our enemies.'—

He obſerves, in a very feeling manner, that we Britiſh Chriſtians have debauched and vitiated the natural honeſty and ſobriety of the Indians; that we have not only defrauded them by diſhoneſt weights and meaſures, in our traffickable concerns with them, but have too often neglected to protect them, as friends and allies, againſt our enemies. 'Is it to be admired, there-'fore,' ſays he, 'that they are ſo difficult to be retained in our 'intereſt? eſpecially when the French treat them with the con-'trary conduct? While our enemies pique themſelves on treat-'ing the Indians with the ſtricteſt regard to truth, integrity, 'and honour; while our enemies treat them with ſmall wines, 'to preſerve their ſobriety, and make them the more ſenſible of 'their good treatment, and not with inebriating ſpirits, the bet-'ter to deceive and over reach them; while the French employ 'their religious emiſſaries, to inſtill the principles of their re-'ligion into them, and their people to intermarry with them; 'while they repreſent the Engliſh and their religion as heretical, 'dangerous, and even damnable; while our enemies are inde-'fatigable in making every impreſſion upon them, both moral 'and religious, to our diſadvantage; and we take pains to make 'ourſelves no leſs odious to them, by our conduct, than our 'enemies repreſent us; how can we reaſonably expect to attach 'theſe people to our cauſe, when it is ſet before them as the 'worſt and moſt iniquitous; and we take no pains to convince 'them of the impoſition?'

Theſe reflections upon our conduct with regard to the Indians, do no leſs honour to his humanity than to his underſtanding.

In the nineteenth diſſertation (which cloſes the firſt volume) he takes a review of the conduct of France, in relation to the North-American colonies, and draws a compariſon between her

her management of her American affairs, and that of Great Britain.—A compariſon which does no honour to the conduct of the latter!

The ſecond volume, begins with diſſertation the twentieth.—In which he ſhews the ſyſtem of policy purſued by France, from the year 1701 to the preſent time, in relation to her American affairs; and gives an abridgment of their ſtatutes, with reſpect to thoſe colonies, extracted from their royal ordinances, edicts, and arrets.

This diſſertation is worthy our attention, and contains ſome judicious obſervations, made by the French board of trade, with reſpect to excluſive privileges; which, as they ſay, may be very beneficial to the ſtate, as often as new ſettlements of colonies, clearing and cultivating of new diſcovered places, or new inventions are propoſed: and yet, in theſe caſes, they obſerve, that the privileges ought not to be granted, but for a certain number of years; for that, unleſs on the foregoing occaſions, nonothing is more deſtructive to a ſtate than excluſive privileges.

In the two ſucceeding diſcourſes, he conſiders the ſyſtem of the French with regard to their African trade.

In theſe diſcourſes he takes notice, that 'when England ac-'cepted of the Aſſiento by the treaty of Utrecht, when the 'French had made the moſt of it, England carried this con-'tract with the court of Spain into execution by the South-Sea 'company, inſtead of the late Royal African company, en-'dowed with due powers, privileges, and immunities, together 'with a large joint capital ſtock, which plain reaſon and natio-'nal policy then dictated. For what was the conſequence of 'giving the Aſſiento to the South-Sea company? Did not this 'create ſuch a rivalſhip in the negro-trade between the South-'Sea company, and the late Royal African company, as proved 'highly detrimental to both, by raiſing the price of negroes to 'an exorbitant price? Is it any wonder, therefore, that France 'made great advantages by this trade, while we made none? 'while we, indeed, ruined both our companies, as trading com-'panies? But ſtill to increaſe our diſadvantage in the African 'trade, with relation to the Royal Aſſiento with the court of 'Spain, England laid the whole African trade open to all the 'ſeparate traders; which not only compleated the ruin of the 'late African company, but of our South-Sea Aſſientiſts; for 'after this, there was not only a rivalſhip in the negro-trade 'between our two companies, but there commenced a rivalſhip 'between all our ſeparate traders themſelves, and between them 'and both theſe companies.—This ſtill more and more enhan-'ced the price of negroes, from four or five pounds a head, as

'they formerly were, to that of thirty and forty, to the unſpeakable injury of our colonies; and, indeed, to the unſpeakable injury of the whole African commerce of England.—But what was the conduct of France during this time? why truly, they, in the year 1716, after they had vouchſafed to transfer the Aſſiento to our South-Sea company, laid their African trade open too, as we had before done.'

In the twenty-third, he exhibits a ſummary review of the commerce of France in the Eaſt-Indies; ſhewing by what gradations they have advanced the ſame, and how Great Britain ſtands in contraſt with them in that reſpect.

Here he very juſtly inveighs againſt the iniquitous Miſſiſſippi ſcheme, which, unhappily for this nation, as he obſerves, we did in a great meaſure follow, by adopting the South-Sea ſcheme. He takes notice likewiſe, that this South-Sea affair of ours, has never yet been rightly laid before the public; and he gives us hopes, that he may one day open all the anecdotes belonging to this deteſtable ſcene of iniquity.

In the twenty-fourth and twenty-fifth, he 'treats of the policy of England with regard to her management of the African trade; with conſiderations how the ſame might have been better conducted, and far more extended for the general intereſt of the nation; with a farther compariſon between our management and that of France, reſpecting the ſame: and by what means our Eaſt-India company may be rendered inſtrumental to the ſecurity and advancement of this commerce.'

Our Author propoſes, that every branch of the trade to Africa, excepting that which is commonly called the ſlave-trade, ſhould be given to the Eaſt-India company by *act of parliament*, with an excluſive privilege for a limited number of years. He likewiſe, with great good ſenſe and humanity, expreſſes his diſlike to the ſlave-trade; but obſerves, that we muſt take things as they are, and not think of giving it up, till we can find ſome means of carrying on our ſugar-plantations to ſuch advantage by employing Whites, as our rivals in this trade do by Blacks. He farther takes notice, that we have ſuffered greatly in our commerce with Africa, by laying that trade abſolutely open, without the exiſtence of a joint ſtock-company; and he ſeems to have clearly refuted the objection ſo often made againſt the exportation of ſilver by the Eaſt-India company.

In the twenty-ſixth and twenty-ſeventh, he conſiders the increaſe of the naval power of France and Spain, by the means of their fiſheries; and ſhews the neceſſity of England's balancing

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that degree of naval power, by the carrying of her fiſheries to the full extent they will admit of. He likewiſe takes a ſurvey of the French trade with all the European nations.'

Theſe diſcourſes contain ſome very intereſting reflections.—Among others he takes notice, that there is no 'reaſon for indulging any other power to make free with our coaſt-fiſhing except our antient and natural allies the Dutch; but if they will not act vigorouſly in concert with us againſt the common enemy; if they will allow themſelves to be ſo far influenced by France, as to ſuffer their own ſtate as well as ours to be ruined and undone; if our old friends and allies will turn our enemies, and ſuffer the whole proteſtant cauſe to ſink together with themſelves and England; how can the Dutch reaſonably expect, that we can cordially grant them any indulgence in trade that is in our power to deprive them of? On the contrary, if the Dutch will at preſent remain refractory, and deaf to all the remonſtrances of the court of London, touching the preſervation of the whole proteſtant intereſt; will it not, at the proper time, become the wiſdom of the court of England to change her ſyſtem with regard to the Dutch, and grant them no favour whatſoever, that is in our power to deprive them of?'

He obſerves likewiſe, that 'the Italians export from Portugal, hides, a conſiderable quantity of ſugars and tobaccos, cocoa-nuts, pepper, ordinary ſpices, elephants teeth, braſil-wood, ſome drugs, and an immenſe quantity of bullion. Inſomuch that of late years, while gold has bore a high price in England, it has been a drug all over Italy: a circumſtance that has been well worthy of Britiſh attention. And our balance of ſome trades in Italy being thus paid us in Portugal gold, we have flattered ourſelves that all the gold of that country has been owing to our direct commerce with Portugal, when the fact has been otherwiſe; and if our Italian trade declines from the loſs of Minorca, or from any other cauſe, we ſhall ſoon experience a ſcarcity of Portugal gold.'

In the twenty-eighth and twenty-ninth, he enters into the eſſential principles of navigation in general, and fiſheries; and ſhews how they contribute to give the balance of commerce, and conſequently of power.—And, to apply thoſe maxims to the ſtate of affairs in time of war, he has conſidered the beſt methods of ſtationing our convoys and cruizers for the ſecurity and protection of our trade and navigation, and for annoying thoſe of the enemy.

In theſe diſcourſes he urges very forcible reaſons againſt depreciating or ſlighting the profeſſion of ſeamen.—A practice too much prevalent among us!

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In the thirtieth, he ſhews the ill policy of our inſuring the ſhips and merchandizes of the enemy in times of war: and enters into conſiderations on neutral powers.

He juſtly obſerves, that 'the great object of a maritime 'nation ſhould be, to take advantage of any rupture with an- 'other trading ſtate, to deſtroy and diſtreſs their ſhipping and 'commerce, and to cut off all reſources for naval armaments. 'But to permit ſuch inſurances is manifeſtly to defeat this end, 'and is contradictory to common ſenſe: for the government 'and private merchants are, on the one hand, fitting out veſ- 'ſels at a great expence to make captures, and to annoy and 'diſtreſs the enemy; whilſt another ſet of merchants make good 'the loſſes, and furniſh means for the continuance of their 'commerce.'

He ſays, it has been inſiſted on by ſome, though never made appear, that our enemies may inſure their ſhips in other countries; but he obſerves, that this, if true, would lay them under the neceſſity of eſtabliſhing a new correſpondence, which would prove at leaſt a temporary obſtruction to their trade: and he very judiciouſly remarks, that if we admit the argument—that they *muſt* be allowed to inſure here, becauſe they *may* inſure in other places, it may be equally juſt to urge, that they *muſt* trade with us, becauſe they *may* trade with other nations.

In the thirty-firſt, he makes 'an enquiry how long France 'may be preſumed to carry on the war from the preſent ſtate 'of affairs?' and remarks, that the dearneſs of our commodities renders it not worth the while of the neutral powers to deal in them, while they are great gainers by trafficking with thoſe of France. He concludes, we apprehend, very juſtly, that till we can change the ſyſtem of Europe, ſo as to raiſe powerful allies to act vigorouſly and faithfully againſt France, we have no reaſon to amuſe ourſelves with the hopes of a peace, either honourable or permanent.

In the thirty-ſecond he lays down ſome general maxims, regarding the advancement of the national commerce; and judiciouſly eſtabliſhes a diſtinction between the gains of the *merchant*, and the gains of the *ſtate*; he alſo produces arguments to prove, that the œconomiſing of mens labour, that is, the ſubſtituting in its ſtead, that of animals and machines, when it can be done with leſs expence, or more ſafety to the men, is ſo far from preventing, that it is rather a means of increaſing the populouſneſs of a ſtate.

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The thirty-third diſſertation treats of arts and manufactures; and contains ſome uſeful reflections on the duties and prohibitions on foreign commodities. 'In order,' ſays he, 'to conſume as little as poſſible at home of the produce of foreign labour, every ſtate has enhanced the price of ſuch articles by duties of entry, or has abſolutely prohibited them.

'A right of ſo doing cannot be diſputed in any free ſociety, unleſs the treaties of commerce, by which that ſociety has entered into engagements with other nations, ſtipulate the contrary.

'But ſuch duties and prohibitions, though lawful, and often neceſſary, are not always what moſt ſuits the real intereſt of a ſtate. For, if it be natural for a nation to make as little uſe as poſſible of foreign manufactures, it is certain, that foreigners have a reciprocal right to lay the manufactures of that nation under equal reſtrictions. Before ſuch a thing be put in practice, it is, therefore, proper to examine carefully, whether the amount of the importations intended to be forbid, exceeds that of the exportations a nation ſhould, in conſequence thereof, be deprived of. National enmities have ſometimes carried thoſe duties and prohibitions to too great a height, when all either party has got by it, has been to cramp its trade, or make room for a third to ſhare its profit.'

He likewiſe endeavours to demonſtrate, that the immunities granted to ſome towns and cities, preferable to others, are deſtructive to the emulation amongſt workmen. 'If it be once admitted,' ſays he, 'that it is of advantage to a ſtate to have manufactories, it follows, that it muſt be ſo to multiply them in as many places as poſſible, in order to eſtabliſh a natural and indiſpenſible equality between all the children of the ſame father. The ſtate is always a gainer by multiplying emulation and rivalſhips amongſt its artiſans of every rank, becauſe its foreign ſales are thereby encreaſed, as well as the ſubjects abilities to ſubſiſt comfortably.'

In the thirty-fourth, he makes an enquiry into the reaſons why Holland has changed her ſyſtem of late years towards the court of England; giving an abſtract of a genuine remarkable ſpeech, ſaid to be made at a conference by the G—d P——r of Holland, in the year 1742, before certain Britiſh Lords, who were ſent on an embaſſy, to engage the Dutch in Britiſh meaſures: with remarks, ſhewing that Holland expects Great Britain ſhould change her ſyſtem towards that republic, before ſhe can alter hers; with ſome intimation how Great Britain

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'may change her ſyſtem to gain the Dutch, and ſeveral other 'her natural allies, as principals in the preſent war againſt 'France; and that at little expence to this nation in compariſon 'to what it is has coſt heretofore.'

The ſpeech of this Dutchman, who charges our Miniſtry with having been frenchified ever ſince the treaty of Utrecht, is worthy the attention of every Briton. But we hope, that Europe will ſoon change her opinion of our politics; for, our preſent Miniſters are true Engliſhmen, and if we may judge from their conduct hitherto, we may determine them to be ſincere Patriots.

In the thirty-fifth, he animadverts on the conduct of the court of Spain towards that of Great-Britain, ſince the peace of Utrecht.

He gives it as his opinion, that we can have little dependance on their friendſhip, and that a Spaniſh neutrality, and a French war, will prove more deſtructive to Great Britain, than a war both with France and Spain.—But, with ſubmiſſion to the Author, he here contradicts himſelf: for, in the thirty-ſecond diſſertation, he makes the following Quære—'If the whole mari-'time power of Spain ſhould unite with that of France againſt 'us, what head can we expect to make againſt both, when we 'have done ſo little againſt France alone?'

Beſides, though we are ready to allow, that there is no end of the deceits practiſed by neutral carriers in time of war, yet it ſeems much eaſier to make a tolerable calculation of our loſs by a neutrality, than to ſay what would be the conſequence of Spain's openly joining France with a royal navy of *One Hundred and Three* ſail.

He obſerves farther, that Spain is taking large ſtrides to raiſe manufactures, and her maritime power; and that we decreaſe in our exports to Spain, and increaſe in our imports; while France increaſes in her exports to Spain, and decreaſes in her imports from thence. In this diſcourſe, too, he ſtrongly recommends the preſerving the poſſeſſion of Gibraltar; of the importance of which place he gives a very accurate account.

In the thirty-ſixth, he enters upon the neceſſity of Great Britain's being at preſent more cloſely connected and allied with the continent than ever ſhe has been, though upon quite different principles, and not at ſuch an expence in time of war, as has been the caſe heretofore.

He here ſhews the abſurdity of the opinion, that we are under no neceſſity of having connections with the continent; and very juſtly obſerves, that our whole commercial intereſt

tereſt, abſolutely depends on our continental connections. He takes notice likewiſe, that if we cannot engage our natural allies the Dutch, it is happy for us, that we can have Pruſſia and *Hanover* to ſupply their place, and act vigorouſly againſt France. *—But alas! if we may judge from ſome late unfortunate occurrences, we can have little dependance on* SUCH SUBSTITUTES.'

In the thirty-ſeventh, which is his laſt diſſertation, he lays down ſome general principles, whereon the balance of trade is founded; and, towards the concluſion, makes ſome very pertinent reflections on the modern abuſe of our intellectual faculties. Vanity, ſays he, is not confined to any one claſs of men; ſhe it is that, backed by too great a number of colleges and academies, meerly literary, produces and keeps up, to the prejudice of all ranks, wretched poets, inſipid noveliſts, and all the numerous tribe of ſcribblers of both ſexes; which occaſions the loſs of people to the public, and only procures to themſelves the ability of begging their bread in more elegant words.

Upon the whole, we think the Public greatly obliged to Mr. Poſtlethwayt for this performance, which contains ample matter of inſtruction in commercial affairs. But we cannot help adding, that if this Writer would but learn to *ſtrike out*, his works would be more entertaining, and not leſs uſeful. We cannot forbear obſerving likewiſe, that his political reflections, throughout, are too immediately relative to our commercial intereſt, without any regard to the principles of government.

He is ſo taken up with his own thoughts, that he ſeems to imagine himſelf ſole proprietor of every idea; and he often tells us, that 'he will not ſpeak out, for fear of giving the enemy an 'advantage.' But if he did not mean to ſpeak out, why did he ſpeak at all? and why did he not reſerve thoſe paſſages for his patron's ear, inſtead of inſulting the public attention with hints and half words?

As we hope for the pleaſure of peruſing ſome of his future productions, we beg leave to recommend it to him, to reſtrain his extravagant vanity. He will do well to recollect, what he has himſelf obſerved, that *real* talents are ever *modeſt*. But there is ſo little modeſty in his writings, that an impatient Reader might be apt to throw them aſide with diſguſt; and thereby loſe the diſcovery of that real merit with which they confeſſedly abound. Poor Mr. *Jacob Henriques*, who imagines that all his crazy flights are for the *glory of his Majeſty, and the honour and welfare of theſe bleſſed kingdoms*, is not more enthuſiaſtic than our Author, when he is talking of himſelf.

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The General Hiſtory and State of Europe; Part V. Containing the Affairs of Spain, England, and Holland, from the Middle to the End of the ſixteenth Century; and of France from the Death of Francis I. *to the Age of Lewis* XIV. *Tranſlated from the Geneva Edition of M.* de Voltaire. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Nourſe.

THE peculiar ſpirit of Mr. Voltaire, and the many ſtriking reflections with which his works are animated, render it no unpleaſing taſk to follow ſo entertaining a guide. Not that a luxuriant imagination is eſſential to an Hiſtorian; it may prove rather prejudicial, as the flights of fancy are apt to colour objects too ſtrongly, and inſtead of beſtowing decent ornaments upon truth, only ſerve to diſguiſe her by a profuſion of embelliſhment. Nevertheleſs, a lively genius, if reſtrained within due bounds, has greatly the advantage of the mere Compiler; as the ſame details which from the pen of the latter would prove inſipid, are, under the animating touch of the former, made productive not only of information, but of delight alſo, to the Reader.

Upon examination, however, the performances of this celebrated Writer ſhew, that his imagination is rather too fertile for hiſtorical compoſition. His veracity has, in ſome inſtances, been diſputed*; but as theſe chiefly relate to occurrences of a recent date, he was liable to be miſled by report, which, like a troubled ſtream, requires time to ſubſide, and ſettle, before we can diſcover the bottom.

This fifth Part of the Hiſtory of Europe includes alſo a view of the extenſive empires of the Eaſt, beginning with that of China; from whence we ſhall extract Mr. Voltaire's *literary* character of the Chineſe.

'The Chineſe began to have a general taſte for theatrical diverſions in the fourteenth century, and it has continued ever ſince: It was impoſſible they could have borrowed this art of any other nation: they were ignorant that ſuch a place as Greece ever exiſted; and neither the Turks nor Tartars could communicate the Greek performances to them. The art was therefore their own; but a Chineſe tragedy tranſlated lately into French, ſhews plainly that they have not brought it to perfection. This tragedy, intitled the Orphan of Tchao, was written in the fourteenth century, and is given us as the beſt extant in that nation. True it is that dramatic perform-

* See Review, vol. XIV. page 292, and 372.

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ances were then in a very rude ſtate in Europe; nay, the art was hardly known. It is our characteriſtic, to make ourſelves perfect in every thing; and that of the Chineſe has been hitherto, to continue where they are. This tragedy is probably in the ſame taſte as Æſchylus's firſt eſſays. The Chineſe, ever ſuperior in moral philoſophy, have made but a ſlender progreſs in the other ſciences. This is becauſe nature has given them plain good ſenſe and underſtanding, but no ſtrength of genius.

'They generally write as they paint, without knowing the ſecrets of the art. Their paintings have been hitherto void of ordonnance, perſpective, and clare obſcure; while their writings partake of the ſame weakneſs. But it ſeems that their productions are remarkable for a prudent mediocrity, and true ſimplicity, which has not the leaſt taint of the bombaſtic ſtile of the other Orientals. In ſuch of their moral tracts as are come to our hands, we find no far-fetched parables, no ſtrained and unnatural compariſons. They are the only people in Aſia that do not ſpeak in enigmas. It is not long ſince we read ſome reflections of a Chineſe Sage, concerning the manner of attaining that ſmall portion of happineſs of which humanity is capable; and theſe reflections are preciſely the ſame as we find in moſt of our books.

'The theory of phyſic is as yet a ſyſtem of abſurdity and error in China. And yet their phyſicians have tolerable practice. Nature would not have the life of man dependent on the improvement of the medical art. The Greeks knew very well how to bleed, without being acquainted with the circulation of the blood. Experience and good ſenſe have eſtabliſhed the practice of phyſic all over the world; it is every where a conjectural art, which ſometimes helps, and ſometimes proves deſtructive to nature.

'Upon the whole, the ſpirit of order and of moderation, a love for the ſciences, the cultivation of the ſeveral arts uſeful to life, and a prodigious number of inventions to facilitate the acquirement of thoſe arts, conſtituted the Chineſe wiſdom. It is this that poliſhed the Tartar conquerors, and incorporated them with the nation. This is an advantage the Greeks could not have over the Turks. In a word, the Chineſe expelled their maſters; while the Greeks never ſo much as dreamt of attempting to recover their liberty.

'When we mention the wiſdom which has preſided over the conſtitution of China theſe four thouſand years, we do not pretend to include the common people, who in all countries muſt be entirely employed in manual labour. The ſpirit of a nation

nation is ever confined to the few who employ, who feed, and who govern the many. And indeed this ſpirit of the Chineſe nation is the moſt ancient monument of reaſon in the whole world.

'Notwithſtanding the excellency of this government, it was diſfigured by great abuſes, inſeparably annexed to human condition, and eſpecially to a vaſt empire. The chief of theſe, not remedied till lately, was the cuſtom of expoſing their children, in hopes they would be taken care of by the opulent. Thus a great number of ſubjects were loſt: and the extreme populouſneſs of the country hindered the government from preventing this miſchief. They looked upon mankind in the ſame light as the fruits of the earth, great part of which is ſuffered to periſh and run to waſte, when there is enough left for eating. The Tartar conquerors might have furniſhed ſubſiſtence to thoſe deſerted and expoſed children, and formed them into colonies to people the deſerts of Tartary. But they never thought of it; and even in our weſtern part of the world, where the neceſſity of repairing the human ſpecies was much ſtronger, we had not yet remedied the ſame evil, though it did us more miſchief. There was never a Foundling-hoſpital in London till within theſe few years. It requires a vaſt many ages to perfect human nature.'

Of thoſe warlike Tartars our Author ſays little; but the enſuing paragraph will demonſtrate, that whatever high opinion an imperious Conqueror may entertain of his own glory in ſpreading devaſtation through the earth, he is nothing more than a miſchievous fool, and may learn wiſdom, even from—old women!

'Mahmoud, who conquered Perſia and India towards the end of the tenth century, was a Tartar. He is hardly known at preſent in this weſtern part of the world, except by the anſwer of a poor woman that applied to him in India for juſtice againſt a perſon who had robbed and murdered her ſon, in the province of Yrac in Perſia: how would you have me do juſtice at ſuch a diſtance? ſaid the Sultan: and why then did you conquer, when you could not govern us? replied the mother!'

Concerning the empire of the Mogul, finding nothing intereſting enough to detain us there, we ſhall proceed to the Perſians. This people are ſaid to enjoy their poſſeſſions, paying a tax to the government, which does not amount to a crown a year; but this requires explanation, unleſs we are to conclude, which appears abſurd, that both rich and poor are taxed alike. 'Perſia,' ſays Mr. Voltaire, 'has one thing in common with

'China

China and Turkey, to be without Nobility: in thoſe vaſt dominions the ſole Nobility is that of Employment; ſo that worthleſs men can reap no advantage from the merit of their anceſtors.

'In Perſia, as well as all over Aſia, it has been always the cuſtom to adminiſter juſtice in a ſummary manner: ſtrangers to council and to law proceedings, they have been ever uſed to plead their own cauſes: in a word, the maxim, that a ſhort injuſtice is preferable to a tedious law-ſuit, has prevailed among all thoſe people, who were civilized long before us, but have not come up to our refinements.'

Want of room obliges us to paſs by our Author's account of the Ottomans, and their extenſive conqueſts. Let us therefore come nearer home, and to a concluſion of the preſent article: for which purpoſe we ſhall lay before our Readers, a view of the riſe of one of the moſt extraordinary commonwealths the world ever produced, viz.

Of the Republic of the United Provinces.

'IF we conſult the different monuments of the foundation of this State, formerly ſo obſcure, and ſince ſo powerful, we ſhall find it was formed without deſign, and againſt all probability. The revolution commenced with the faireſt and largeſt of the inland provinces, Brabant, Flanders, and Hainault, which, however, continued in their ancient ſubjection; while a little corner of the earth, almoſt ſubmerged in water, which ſubſiſted intirely by its herring fiſhery, became a formidable power, made head againſt Philip II, ſtripped his ſucceſſors of almoſt all their poſſeſſions in the Eaſt-Indies, and concluded at length with protecting the Spaniſh monarchy.

'It cannot be denied but Philip himſelf forced thoſe people to act ſo grand a part, which was certainly beyond their expectations: his cruel deſpotiſm proved the cauſe of their grandeur.

'It is of importance here to conſider, that theſe people are not all governed on the ſame plan; that the Netherlands were an aſſemblage of ſeignories ſubject to Philip II, under various titles; that each province had its particular laws and uſages; that in Friſeland and the country of Groningen, all they owed to their Lord, was a tribute of ſix thouſand crowns; that no taxes could be laid on any of the towns, no employment given to any but natives, no foreign troops maintained, nor, in ſhort, any innovation made in the government, without the conſent of the three orders of the State. It was mentioned in the ancient conſtitutions of Brabant, that *if the Sovereign, either by*

open violence, or by artifice, ſhould attempt to violate their privileges, the States ſhall be diſcharged from their oath of allegiance, and may take what meaſures they ſhall judge proper. This conſtitution of government had long obtained in moſt parts of Europe; no law was enacted, no ſubſidies raiſed, without the ſanction of the States in full aſſembly. Over thoſe States preſided a Governor of the province, who was called the *Stadtholder*, or he that holds the States, in all lower Germany.

'In the year 1559 Philip II conferred the government of Holland, Zealand, Friſeland, and Utrecht, on William of Naſſau, Prince of Orange.—William owed his chief luſtre to the imperial houſe of which he was deſcended. But though this family was as ancient as that of Auſtria, and had given an Emperor to Germany, yet they did not rank among the Princes of the Empire. The title of Prince, which began to be uſed towards the reign of Frederic II, was aſſumed only by the chief of the landed men. The imperial blood conferred no right, nor honour; and the ſon of an Emperor poſſeſſed of no landed eſtate, was only Emperor if elected, and a plain Gentleman if he did not ſucceed his father. William of Naſſau was Count of the empire, as King Philip II was Count of Holland and Lord of Mechlin; but he was a ſubject of Philip, as his Stadt-holder.

'Philip would fain be as abſolute in the Netherlands, as he had made himſelf in Spain. Such a deſire is very natural to human authority ever endeavouring to break through all reſtraint; but he found another advantage in being deſpotic in ſo large and fruitful a country, bordering upon France; he might in that caſe at leaſt have diſmembered this kingdom for ever, ſince notwithſtanding that he loſt ſeven provinces, and that his power was greatly cramped in the reſt, ſtill he was very near ſubduing this kingdom, without ever putting himſelf at the head of an army.

'He determined therefore to abrogate all laws, to impoſe arbitrary taxes, to create new Biſhops, and to eſtabliſh the Inquiſition, which he could not introduce either into Naples or Milan. The Flemings are naturally good ſubjects, and bad ſlaves. The very dread of the Inquiſition made more Proteſtants than all Calvin's books, among a people who ſurely have no natural diſpoſition to novelty or riot. The chief Lords immediately meet at Bruſſels, in order to repreſent their grievances to the Governeſs of the Low Countries, Margaret of Parma, natural daughter of Charles V. This meeting was called a conſpiracy at Madrid; while in the Netherlands it was a very lawful act. Certain it is that the confederate Lords were no rebels, for they ſent the Count de Berg, and the Lord de Monmorenci Montigni into

into Spain, to lay their complaints before the throne. They demanded the removal of Cardinal de Granvelle, the firſt Miniſter, whoſe artifices gave them umbrage. The Court ſent the Duke of Alva into Flanders, with Spaniſh and Italian troops, and with orders to employ the cord as much as the ſword. What in any other country would have eaſily ſuppreſſed a civil war, was the very thing that gave riſe to it in Flanders. William of Naſſau, Prince of Orange, ſurnamed the Silent, was almoſt the only one that thought of having recourſe to arms, while the others judged beſt to ſubmit.

'There are men of a proud, dark diſpoſition; men of ſteady courage, who derive new ſtrength from difficulties. Such was the character of William the Silent, and ſuch was afterwards his great grandſon the Prince of Orange, King of England. William the Silent had neither lands, nor troops, nor money, to oppoſe ſuch a Monarch as Philip II. The perſecutions were his ſupply: for the tribunal erected at Bruſſels threw the people into deſpair. Counts Egmont and Horn, with eighteen Gentlemen, were beheaded; and their blood was the firſt cement of the Republic of the United Provinces.

'The Prince of Orange, condemned to loſe his head, withdrew into Germany. He could arm none but Proteſtants in his favour, and in order to ſpirit them up, he muſt be of their religion. Calviniſm prevailed in the maritime provinces of the Netherlands: but William had been bred a Lutheran. Charles V, fond of this Prince, made him a Catholic, and neceſſity reduced him to be a Calviniſt: for Princes who have either eſtabliſhed, protected, or changed the religion of a country, ſeldom have had any themſelves. It was very difficult for William to raiſe an army. His eſtate in Germany was inconſiderable: the county of Naſſau belonged to one of his brothers. But his brothers, his friends, his merit, and his promiſes, procure him ſoldiers. Theſe he ſends away directly into Friſeland, under the command of his brother Count Lewis: his army is deſtroyed, and yet he is not diſcouraged: he raiſes another of Germans and French, engaged by religious enthuſiaſm, and by the hopes of plunder, to enliſt in his ſervice. Fortune ſeldom favours him; incapable of penetrating into the Netherlands, he is reduced to go and fight in the Hugonot army in France. The Spaniſh ſeverities procure him new reſources. The laying the tenth penny on the ſale of moveable goods, the twentieth on immoveables, and the hundredth on the lands, made the Flemings quite deſperate. How comes it that the Sovereign of Mexico and Peru ſhould be forced to have recourſe to theſe exactions?

'At length the Prince of Orange enters Brabant with a ſmall army; and from thence retires into Zealand and Holland. Amſterdam, now ſo famous a city, was then a trifling place; and durſt not even declare for the Prince of Orange. At that time it was intent upon a new branch of commerce, low indeed in appearance, but which proved the foundation of its grandeur. The catching and ſalting of herrings does not ſeem to be a matter of high importance in the hiſtory of the world; and yet it is this that raiſed a paltry barren ſpot to be a formidable power. Venice had not a more ſplendid original: great empires have all begun with hamlets; and maritime powers with fiſhing boats.

'The Prince of Orange's whole reſource was a parcel of pirates: one of them ſurprizes the Brille; a Curate makes Flushing declare in his favour; in a word, the States of Holland and Zealand aſſemble at Dordrecht, and in conjunction with the city of Amſterdam they chuſe him for their Stadt-holder. He then derived the ſame dignity from the people, which before he had held of the King. They aboliſhed the Romiſh religion, to the end that they might have nothing in common with the Spaniſh government.

'Theſe people were long reckoned to have no taſte for war; and all of a ſudden they became good ſoldiers. Never did men fight with greater bravery and fury, on both ſides. The Spaniards, at the ſiege of Harlem, having thrown the head of one of their priſoners into the town, the inhabitants flung the heads of eleven Spaniards into the enemy's camp, with this inſcription, *ten heads in payment for the tenth penny, and the eleventh for intereſt*. The city having ſurrendered at diſcretion, the Spaniards hung up all the Magiſtrates, all the Proteſtant Miniſters, and upwards of fifteen hundred Citizens: This was treating the Netherlands in the ſame manner as they had behaved to the new world. My pen is ready to drop out of my hand, when I conſider with what cruelty mankind have acted towards one another.

'The barbarity of the Duke of Alva having anſwered no other purpoſe, than to deprive the King his maſter of two provinces, he is at length recalled. At his departure, he is ſaid to have boaſted of having put eighteen thouſand perſons to death by the hands of the public executioner. Nor did the horrors of war abate in the leaſt under the new Governor of the Netherlands, the grand Commander de Requeſens. The Prince of Orange's army is again defeated, his brothers are ſlain; yet his party is ſtrengthened by the animoſity of a people who are naturally of a quiet diſpoſition, but having once paſſed the limits, know not how to turn back.

The

'The ſiege and defence of Leyden are one of the ſtrongeſt proofs of the amazing effects of conſtancy and liberty. The Dutch did exactly the ſame thing then, as they ventured afterwards to do in 1672, when Lewis XIV. was at the gates of Amſterdam: they pierced the dykes; the fields were overflown with the waters of the Iſſel, the Maeſe, and the Ocean; and ſuccours were waſted into the town on board a fleet of two hundred boats over the Spaniſh entrenchments. There happened another prodigy; which is, that the Spaniards dared to continue the ſiege, and to undertake to drain off the inundation. There is no example in hiſtory of ſuch a reſource in a town beſieged, nor of ſuch obſtinacy in beſiegers; an obſtinacy however which turned to no account, for Leyden ſtill celebrates every year the day of her delivery. We muſt not forget to mention, that the inhabitants made uſe of pigeons at this ſiege, for conveying intelligence to the Prince of Orange; a practice very common in Aſia.——

'After the deceaſe of the Grand Commander de Requeſens, Philip ſends thither his brother Don John of Auſtria, a Prince famed through all Europe for the victory of Lepanto over the Turks, and for his ambition which ſet him upon attempting to be King of Tunis. Philip did not love Don John; he was jealous of his glory, and miſtruſted his deſigns. Yet he conferred the government of the Netherlands upon him againſt his will, in hopes that the people pleaſed with a Prince who inherited the military virtues of his father Charles V, would return to their duty. He was miſtaken. The Prince of Orange was acknowleged as Governor of Brabant in Bruſſels, when Don John left that city, after being declared Governor-General. And yet this honour paid to William the Silent, was the very thing that prevented Brabant and Flanders from being free, like Holland. In thoſe two provinces there were too many Lords, jealous of the Prince of Orange; and this jealouſy preſerved the ten provinces to Spain. They invited the Archduke Matthias to be their Governor-General, in oppoſition to Don John. It is hard to conceive how an Archduke of Auſtria, nearly related to Philip II, and a Catholic, ſhould put himſelf at the head of a party, almoſt all Proteſtants, and againſt the chief branch of his family: but ambition knows no ſuch ties, and Philip was neither beloved by the Emperor, nor by the Empire.

'Diviſions ariſe on every ſide, and all falls into confuſion. The States appoint the Prince of Orange Lieutenant-General to the Archduke Matthias, which renders him of courſe a ſecret rival to that Prince. Both are enemies to Don John; and the States are jealous of all three. Another party, equally diſſatisfied with the States, and the three Princes, divide the country.

The States proclaim liberty of conſcience; but there was no longer any poſſibility of remedying the phrenzy of faction. Don John, after winning the battle of Gembloux, which anſwered no purpoſe, dies in the flower of life, and in the midſt of theſe diſturbances.

'To this ſon of Charles V, ſucceeds a grandſon, of equal renown; I mean Alexander Farneſe, Duke of Parma, deſcended from Charles by his mother, and from Pope Paul III, by his father.—Hiſtory does not celebrate a greater Captain: yet he could neither hinder the union of the Seven Provinces, nor the progreſs of that Republic, whoſe foundation he himſelf had ſeen laid.

'Theſe Seven Provinces, now called by the general name of Holland, headed by the Prince of Orange, eſtabliſh that famous union, in appearance ſo ſlight, and in reality ſo ſolid, of ſeven Provinces independent of each other, actuated by different intereſts, and ſtill as cloſely connected by the great tie of liberty, as the bundle of arrows, the arms and emblem of the Republic.

'This Union of Utrecht is the foundation of their Commonwealth, and alſo of the Stadtholderſhip. William is declared Chief of the Seven Provinces, by the name of Captain, Admiral-General, and Stadtholder. The other ten, which together with Holland might have formed the moſt potent Republic in the univerſe, would not join the Seven. Theſe defend themſelves; but Brabant, Flanders, and the reſt, would have a foreign Prince to protect them. The States-General finding the Archduke Matthias incapable of ſerving their cauſe, diſmiſs this ſon, this brother of Emperors, who was Emperor afterwards himſelf, and allow him a moderate penſion. The next ſtep they take is to ſend for Francis Duke of Anjou, brother of Henry III, King of France, with whom they had been long in treaty. All thoſe Provinces were divided into four parties; that of Matthias, ſo very weak that he was ſent back; that of the Duke of Anjou, which ſoon became fatal to them; that of the Duke of Parma, who had only a few Lords and his army on his ſide, but at length preſerved ten provinces for the King of Spain; and that of William of Naſſau, who intirely ſtripped him of ſeven.

'At this very time Philip, who never ſtirred from Madrid, proſcribed the Prince of Orange, and ſet his head at five and twenty thouſand crowns. This method of commanding aſſaſſinations, unheard of ſince the Triumvirate, had been practiſed in France againſt the Admiral de Coligni, William's father-in-law, for whoſe blood they had promiſed fifty thouſand crowns.

Only

Only half the money was bid for the head of the Prince his ſon-in-law, though Philip was able to pay the moſt.

'What a ſtrange prejudice ſtill prevailed at this time? The King of Spain, in his edict of proſcription, acknowleges that he has violated his oath to the Flemings, and ſays, *that the Pope had releaſed him from that oath.* He muſt therefore have believed that this argument was likely to make a ſtrong impreſſion on the minds of the Catholics. But how greatly muſt it exaſperate the Proteſtants, and confirm them in their defection?

'William's anſwer is one of the fineſt monuments of Hiſtory. He had been Philip's ſubject; and now he becomes his equal by being proſcribed. In his apology we ſee a Prince of an imperial family, as ancient, and heretofore as illuſtrious as the Houſe of Auſtria, a Prince Stadtholder ſtanding up to impeach the moſt potent King in Europe, at the bar of every other court, and of all mankind. In a word, he ſhews himſelf ſuperior to Philip in this reſpect, that having it in his power to proſcribe him in his turn, he abhors the baſe revenge, and reſts his ſecurity on the point of his ſword.

'Philip was now more formidable than ever, for he had juſt made himſelf maſter of Portugal, without ſtirring out of his cabinet; and he imagined he ſhould reduce the United Provinces in the ſame manner. William, on the one hand, had reaſon to be afraid of aſſaſſins, and, on the other, of a new maſter in the Duke of Anjou, who was lately arrived in the Netherlands, and acknowleged as Duke of Brabant, and Earl of Flanders. But he got rid of the Duke of Anjou as eaſily as of the Archduke Matthias. The Duke would fain be abſolute Sovereign of a country that had choſen him for its Protector. In all ages there have been conſpiracies againſt Princes: this Prince conſpired againſt the people. He wanted to ſurprize Antwerp, Bruges, and other towns which he was come to defend. He ſurprized Antwerp, but was driven out again, with the loſs of fifteen hundred French. In his attempts upon the other towns he miſcarried. Preſſed on the one ſide by the Duke of Parma, on the other deteſted by the people, he retired into France, and left the Duke of Parma and the Prince of Orange to diſpute the poſſeſſion of the Netherlands, which became the chief theatre of war in Europe, and the ſchool to which men of bravery from all nations, came to ſtudy the military art.

'Philip got his revenge of the Prince of Orange, by means of aſſaſſins. A Frenchman, whoſe name was Salcede, conſpired his death. Jaurigni, a Spaniard, wounded him with a piſtol-ſhot at Antwerp. At lenth Balthazar Gerard, a native of Franche Comptè, killed him in the preſence of his Lady, who

beheld her ſecond huſband aſſaſſinated, after having been bereft of her firſt, together with her father, the Admiral, at the maſſacre of St. Bartholomew. This aſſaſſination of the Prince of Orange was not committed with any view of gaining the reward of five and twenty thouſand crowns promiſed by Philip, but through religious enthuſiaſm. The Jeſuit Strada relates, that Gerard conſtantly declared under the torture, *that he had been excited to this action by divine inſtinct.* He ſays alſo expreſsly, *that Jaurigni did not undertake to kill the Prince of Orange till he had purged his ſoul by confeſſion at the feet of a Dominican, and fortified himſelf with the heavenly bread.* This was the crime of the times. The Anabaptiſts had ſhewn the way. During the ſiege of Munſter, a German woman, deſirous of imitating the example of Judith, went out of the town with an intent to lye with the Biſhop who had laid ſiege to it, and to kill him in bed. Poltrot de Merè aſſaſſinated Francis Duke de Guiſe through the ſame principles. The maſſacre of St. Bartholomew brought thoſe horrid ſcenes to the higheſt pitch. The ſame ſpirit afterwards produced the aſſaſſination of Henry III. and of Henry IV. and formed the Gunpowder conſpiracy in England.—

'When William the Silent was aſſaſſinated, he was juſt upon the point of being declared Earl of Holland. The conditions of this new dignity had been already agreed to by all the towns, except Amſterdam and Gouda. Hereby we find that he had laboured for himſelf as much as for the Republic.

'His ſon Maurice could not pretend to this principality: but the Seven Provinces declared him their Stadtholder; and he finiſhed the ſtructure of liberty commenced by his father. He was worthy to enter the liſts with Alexander Farneſe. Theſe Heroes gained immortal reputation on this narrow ſtage, where the ſcene of war attracted the attention of all Europe. Were there nothing but the ſiege of Antwerp to recommend the Duke of Parma's memory, he would ſtill be ranked among the greateſt Captains of the age; the Antwerpians defended themſelves as bravely as heretofore the Tyrians; and the Duke took Antwerp in the ſame manner as the Conqueror whoſe name he bore had taken the city of Tyre, by raiſing a dyke on the deep and rapid river of Schelde; an example followed by Cardinal Richelieu at the ſiege of Rochelle.

'The infant Republic was obliged to implore the aſſiſtance of Elizabeth Queen of England; who ſent them four thouſand men under the command of the Earl of Leiceſter. This was enough at that time. Leiceſter for a little while acted as Prince Maurice's ſuperior, juſt as the Duke of Anjou and the Archduke Matthias had acted in regard to his father. He took the title

and

and rank of Governor-General, which was ſoon diſapproved of by the Queen. Maurice preſerved his Stadtholderſhip of the Seven Provinces; happy if his ambition had carried him no farther.

'During this long war, chequered with ſuch viciſſitudes, neither Philip could recover the Seven Provinces, nor theſe take any of the ten from him. The Republic was every day growing ſo formidable at ſea, that ſhe contributed greatly to deſtroy that fleet of Philip's, intitled the Invincible. For the ſpace of forty years theſe people reſembled the Lacedemonians, who conſtantly repulſed the great King. The ſame manners, ſimplicity, and equality, prevailed in Amſterdam as in Sparta; with greater ſobriety. Theſe provinces retained ſomething of the innocence of the primitive times. There is not a Friſelander, even of middling education, but has heard that the uſe of locks and keys was at that time unknown to his country. They had no more than was neceſſary for nature, which it was not worth their while to lock up; they were not afraid of their countrymen; but they defended their flocks and their granaries againſt the enemy. In all thoſe maritime provinces they lived in little huts, which had nothing to recommend them but their ſimplicity and neatneſs. Never was there a people leſs acquainted with delicacy. When Louiſa de Coligni was coming to be married to Prince William at the Hague, they ſent an open poſt-waggon to meet her, and ſhe was ſeated on a plank. But towards the latter end of Prince Maurice's days, and during Frederic-Henry's life-time, the Hague was become a moſt agreeable reſidence, by the great concourſe of Princes, Stateſmen, and Captains. Amſterdam roſe by trade alone to be one of the moſt flouriſhing cities in the world; and the fertility of the neighbouring paſtures enriched the inhabitants of the open country.'

Such was the ſpirit the Hollanders were capable of exerting in their times of ſimplicity; which, in this age of elegance we may, perhaps, deſpiſe under the name of poverty: but, if we compare what they *then were*, with what they *now are*, we ſhall perceive, that their private temperance, and public virtue, have declined, as their wealth and proſperity have increaſed; and that, intoxicated with the ſweets of traffic, they have exchanged their *integrity* for *gold!* But let them remember, that,

Nil pictis timidus navita puppibus
Fidit.———— HOR.

'The riches of a nation are, by no means, its ſecurity; on the contrary, thoſe of this Republic, may ſerve, in the end, only to mark her out a tempting prey to ſome rapacious neighbour: and need we aſk, with Martial,

Cujus Vulturis hoc erit cadaver?

The

The Sleep of Plants, and the Cauſe of Motion in the Senſitive Plant, Explained. By J. Hill, *in a Letter to C.* Linnæus, *Profeſſor of Botany at Upſal.* 12mo. 1s. Baldwin.

THIS little pamphlet is declared by its Author to have been originally intended for only what its title expreſſes, 'a private letter to a foreign Naturaliſt. 'There is,' ſays the Doctor, 'a freedom of ſtyle, and aſſured manner, peculiar to this kind of correſpondence, which would be too aſſuming in works addreſſed immediately to the public; and might, not unnaturally, draw upon the Author a cenſure of *ſelf-ſufficiency* and *vanity*.'

But can even candour reconcile the Doctor's pretenſions to modeſty with his having dedicated to the KING a *private* letter to a *private* correſpondent? Does not the following paragraph, in that dedication, betray more than a ſmall ſhare of *ſelf-ſufficiency*? —'The diſcovery which, may it pleaſe your MAJESTY, is the 'ſubject of this work, though to the incurious it may appear 'ſlight and unimportant, will, by thoſe who are acquainted 'with the powers of nature, *I aſſure myſelf*, be regarded with 'more notice; as the ſolution of a problem held through many 'ages inexplicable: and when *names* and *titles* are *forgot*, 'it will perhaps be *remembered* that *it* was made in Britain, un-'der the protection of your ſacred Majeſty: who, while the *reſt* 'of Europe is involved in the worſt horrors of a deſtructive war, 'give to your ſubjects a repoſe, in which they can purſue the 'calm reſearches of philoſophy*.'———

Or can the Writer be altogether acquitted of *vanity*, who, addreſſing himſelf to the *celebrated* LINNÆUS, expreſſes himſelf thus. 'Free in the tribute of applauſe....I have on the other hand, 'been as open in my cenſures, It is thus ſcience may be ad-'vanced....I perſuade myſelf,....that you have read with equal 'temper the cenſures of the BRITISH HERBAL, wherein it 'came before ME to examine ſyſtems; and the juſt applauſe of 'EDEN, where the characters of genera, and diſtinctions were 'moſt to be conſidered.'——How juſt is the obſervation of the Roman Satyriſt!

† The latter part of this paſſage may be better underſtood, if expreſſed as follows—When the names of Great-Britain, King George the ſecond, and Dr. Hill, are forgot; it will perhaps be remembered, that Dr. Hill made ſuch a diſcovery in Great-Britain, in the reign of King George the ſecond; at a time when all Europe was at war with each other, except Great-Britain, which then enjoyed the bleſſings of profound peace, &c.

Sed

Ad mores Natura recurrit
Damnatus, fixa et mutari neſcia. ——
—— *Quando recepit*
Ejectum ſemel attritâ de fronte Ruborem? JUV.

In the advertiſement prefixed to this work, the Author apologiſes for having uſed the word *Sleep*, on this occaſion, and diſclaims it, as the property of Linnæus, who firſt applied it to the preſent ſubject: and in the firſt ſection of the epiſtle itſelf, he thus explains what is meant by the term. 'That the leaves of 'certain plants aſſume at night a diſpoſition different from that 'of the day, has been long known: Acoſta records it of the Tamarind; Alpinus records it of that tree and of the Abrus; and 'from theſe all who followed: Alpinus extends the obſervation 'to ſeveral other of the Egyptian kinds: and you have carried 'it much farther among the European.

'There have not been wanting from the time when this property in vegetables was firſt regarded, ſome who have ſought 'its origin; but all yet unſucceſsfully. Thoſe who ſuppoſed 'it the effect of heat and cold, might, for a long time, ſeem 'to have judged rightly; but when we find the ſame thing 'happen with equal regularity in ſtoves, where there is no 'change in the temperature of the air, we are convinced that 'opinion cannot be juſt.'

Having aſſerted the affinity between the Sleeping and Senſitive Plants, he concludes the ſection with theſe conditional affirmations. 'If I can cloſe the Abrus leaves at noon-day, and open 'them again at pleaſure, you will own, I know, the principle 'of their change of poſition.

'If I can throw down, as well as cloſe the leaves of the 'Senſitive Plant, without a touch, by removing the power 'which keeps them erect, and expanded, you will acknowlege 'the latent principle of their motion is alſo underſtood.

'We always know the cauſe of thoſe effects we can ourſelves produce; and experiments are the trueſt teſt of reaſoning.'

Section ſecond, treats of the anatomy of the leaves of plants; in the third, the obſervations of Travellers touching the appearances of plants in various parts of the world are mentioned; with an experiment of our Author's, relating to the watering ſome, almoſt to deſtruction, and leaving others of the ſame kind dry; which, is ſaid, to have occaſioned no difference, all expanding their leaves in the morning, and dropping them in the evening, at the ſame hour, and in the ſame degree. From hence the Doctor inſiſts, that 'Two of the four natural agents, Heat and 'Moi-

'Moiſture, are therefore excluded from any ſhare in this effect: 'the Air is too univerſal, and its changes too much depend on 'theſe to be admitted in the reſearch. The attention therefore 'falls on Light alone: and I have found,' adds he, 'by many 'experiments, that the change of poſition in the leaves of plants, 'at different periods of the day and night, is owing to this agent, 'and no other. This is the diſcovery that I perſuade myſelf I 'have made; and I ſhall endeavour to ſhew, that it is founded 'on reaſon, and ſupported by experiments.'

Section fourth contains a diſſection of the Abrus leaf, and a deſcription of the manner by which Light acts upon plants; the latter is as follows. 'Light is ſubtle, active, and penetrating: 'by the ſmallneſs of its conſtituent parts, it is capable of enter- 'ing bodies; and by the violence of its motion, of producing 'great effects and changes in them. Theſe are not permanent, 'becauſe thoſe rays which occaſion them, are, in that very 'action, extinguiſhed, and loſt. Bodies may act on Light 'without contact; for the rays will be reflected when they come 'extremely near: but Light can act on bodies only by contact; 'and in that contact the rays are loſt. The change produced in the 'poſition of the leaves of plants by Light, is the reſult of a mo- 'tion occaſioned by its rays among their fibres: to excite this 'motion, the Light muſt touch thoſe fibres; and where Light 'touches, it adheres, and becomes immediately extinguiſhed.'

Theſe, ſays the Author, in his fifth ſection, are the everlaſting and invariable properties of Light: and 'As the ſtate of 'Water uninfluenced by heat is ice, the natural poſition of the 'lobes in theſe pinnated leaves is drooping. This is their poſ- 'ture of repoſe: but in this they were not intended by the Au- 'thor of nature to remain; for vegetation is very imperfectly 'performed while they are in it. The effect of Light is this 'vibration, and the alteration of poſition in thoſe lobes. This 'is the doctrine here advanced, and this is ſupported by the fol- 'lowing experiments.

'I removed a plant of the Abrus from a ſtove, in the even- 'ing of the ſeventh of Auguſt, and placed it in my ſtudy, where 'it could have the effect of moderate day-light, without being 'expoſed to the immediate action of the ſun.

'This might be conceived the moſt natural and equable de- 'gree of Light; and therefore fitteſt for the firſt experiments.

'The lobes of the leaves were at evening, when the plant 'was brought in, fallen perpendicularly from the middle rib, 'and cloſed together by their under ſides.

'Thus

'Thus they continued during the night; in a ſtate of perfect repoſe. Half an hour after day-break they began to ſeparate; and in a quarter of an hour after ſun-riſe ſtood horizontally; flat, and perfectly expanded. Long before ſun-ſet they began to droop again; and toward evening they were cloſed underneath, as at firſt.

'Next day the plant was ſet in a room, where there was leſs light. The lobes were raiſed in the morning; but not to a horizontal ſituation; and they drooped earlier at evening.

'The third day it was ſet in a ſouth window, open to the full ſun. Early in the morning the leaves had attained their horizontal ſituation; by nine o'clock they were raiſed conſiderably; and they continued in this ſtate till toward evening, when they by degrees fell to the horizontal ſituation; and from that drooped gradually to the uſual ſtate of reſt.

'The fourth day the plant ſtood in the ſame place, but the ſun did not appear. The lobes obtained early their horizontal ſituation, but did not riſe beyond it: and in the evening cloſed as uſually, below.

'Theſe experiments ſhew the effects of various degrees of Light: at the ſame time, that they prove the whole change to be occaſioned by Light only.

'The effect of moderate Light, that is, the Light of a bright day out of the ſun-ſhine, is to raiſe the lobes to an horizontal poſition: leſs than this places them at an obtuſe angle downward: more at an obtuſe angle upwards.

'The fifth day the plant was ſet in a leſs enlightned room, and the leaves had obtained by nine o'clock their poſition at an obtuſe angle downward: it was then brought into the lighter room, and they roſe to the horizontal ſituation in a quarter of an hour. It was then removed to the window, where the ſun ſhone, and the lobes were elevated as before: and being thence carried into the leſs light room, they drooped again. All theſe changes were produced between the hours of nine and two, the weather the ſame, and only the place of the plant changed.

'On the ſixth day it remained in moderate Light; and kept its leaves horizontal.

'On the ſeventh I made the final experiment.

'It appeared to me, that if Light were the ſole cauſe of the motion, and change of poſition in the leaves, then denying the plant the benefit of Light at any time, muſt bring on that change:

'change: that it would not be difficult to darken the place 'where the plant ſtood, at any time: and that the conſequence 'of this muſt be, if the principles already laid down were true, a 'bringing on of the change at any time of the day. This experi- 'ment appeared as a juſt proof of the foregoing reaſonings: 'if darkneſs would at any time throw down the lobes, the ſyſ- 'tem of that motion before delivered muſt be true; if not, 'that all the reaſonings muſt be falſe.

'The aſſent of the world muſt alſo depend on this. Deduc- 'tions of reaſon may be diſputed, but it will be allowed cer- 'tainly, that we underſtand the cauſe of a change we can pro- 'duce.

'In the evening of the ſixth day I ſet the plant in a book- 'caſe, on which the morning ſun ſhines; and throwing open 'the doors, left the whole to nature. The ſucceeding day was 'bright. The lobes which had met in their drooping poſition 'at evening, and continued ſo during the night, began to open 'early in the morning, and by nine o'clock they had paſſed their 'horizontal ſituation, and were elevated in the uſual manner.

'I then ſhut the doors of the book-caſe: the plant was by 'this left in darkneſs; and on opening them an hour after- 'wards, the full change had happened: the lobes were all 'droped, and it was in the ſame ſtate that it would have ſhewn 'at midnight.

'On the opening the doors the change began very ſoon: and 'in twenty minutes the lobes had obtained their elevated ſitua- 'tion. This experiment I have ſince many times repeated, and 'always with the ſame ſucceſs.

'It is in our power therefore to bring on this ſtate of repoſe 'at pleaſure; and by the admiſſion or excluſion of Light, to 'make the plant at our own time put on all its changes, from 'the drooping to the moſt elevated poſition of the lobes.

'We know that in theſe experiments, Light alone is the 'cauſe: we are therefore certain, that what is called the Sleep 'of plants, is the effect of the abſence of Light alone, and 'that their various intermediate ſtates are owing to its different 'degrees.'

However, allowing the Doctor's experiments all the force he would attribute to them, and admitting his deductions from them to be juſt, would it not have elucidated and confirmed his hypotheſis, to have ſhewn, not only, that the excluſion of light at noon occaſioned the leaves of theſe plants to cloſe, but alſo, that by the introduction of light in the night-time they were expanded?

Our

In the eighth ſection our Author obſerves, that 'This being 'explained, a ſecond diſcovery follows naturally. The motion 'of the Senſitive Plant, at the cauſe of which no Philoſopher 'has hitherto ventured a conjecture, is in a great meaſure, ow-'ing to the ſame principles: and the explanation of it, which 'before the effect of Light upon the leaves of plants was thus 'ſhewn, muſt have been enveloped in impenetrable obſcurity, 'may now be regularly purſued.'

A Tamarind tree, he ſays, in ſection ninth, cloſed its leaves upon being brought from Hammerſmith to St. James's-ſtreet: from hence he infers, that the ſame conſtruction of parts which gives the Senſitive Plant the power of motion, is in the Tamarind tree, though leſs delicate; ſo that a ruder ſhock is required to bring on the change. Having connected the Abrus with the Tamarind, and that with the Senſitive Plant, he deſcribes the parts of the latter, and the property ſo remarkable in it; ſection tenth. 'In the night the Senſitive Plant is not capable of 'the common motion on the touch, for the leaves are already 'in the condition whereto they would be reduced by it. In 'the day they riſe and ſpread: and it is then the ſtrange effect 'appears on touching them.—The vibration of the parts is that 'which keeps the leaves of the Senſitive Plant in their expanded 'and elevated ſtate. This is owing to a delicate motion conti-'nued through every fibre of them. When we touch the leaf, 'we give it another motion more violent than the firſt: this 'overcomes the firſt: the vibration is ſtopped by the rude 'ſhock; and the leaves cloſe, and their footſtalks fall, becauſe 'that vibrating motion is deſtroyed, which kept them elevated 'and expanded.———

'The power of abſolute darkneſs is greater on the Senſitive 'Plant than that of the rudeſt touch. The rudeſt touch will 'only cauſe the lobes of the ſeparate leaves to cloſe, and the 'footſtalks to hang down: the two leaves will remain far aſun-'der. The effect of abſolute darkneſs exceeds this; for the 'two leaves cloſe alſo abſolutely together, and it appears as if 'the footſtalk ſupported only one. This proves that the ex-'panſion of thoſe parts depends ſolely upon the effect of Light; 'and that altho' it may be diſturbed by a ſuperadded and ruder 'motion, yet it can be taken away abſolutely only by darkneſs; 'by the defect of that to which alone it was owing.'——

'Hence alſo the different appearance of pinnated leaves in 'various climates is underſtood; and may be aſſigned to its true 'cauſe, which is the different degree of Light. In the Eaſt 'the lobes are expanded, not becauſe of the Heat, but becauſe 'the Light is ſtrong: In the northern kingdoms they droop,

'not

'not from cold, but becauſe the air is leſs enlightned: In the 'rainy ſeaſons they alſo droop, but it is not from the moiſture, 'but the darkneſs of the weather; and in Egypt they are moſt 'raiſed of all, not becauſe it never rains, but becauſe the Light 'is conſtant.'

Theſe poſitions the Author endeavours to eſtabliſh by experiments, and concludes with directions for repeating the ſaid experiments. Time will ſhew what judgment Botaniſts will paſs upon his notions: For us, we ſhall only obſerve, that allowing the Doctor the ſucceſs he pretends to have met with from his reſearches on this *important* ſubject, it may be ſtill doubtful whether his diſcovery will procure him the ſame tributes of applauſe from others, which he has arrogated to himſelf.

Diſcourſes on ſeveral Subjects and Occaſions. By John Dalton, *D. D. Prebendary of Worceſter, and Rector of St. Mary-at-Hill, London.* 8vo. 3s. 6d. John Rivington.

OF the eight ſermons contained in this collection, only three are new, five of them having been formerly publiſhed. They are all ſenſible, elegant, and ſpirited diſcourſes. The ſubject of four of them is, *univerſity education.* Theſe were preached and publiſhed, we are told, in order to contribute, in ſome degree, toward guarding the ſtudents of our univerſities againſt the faſhionable prevalence of irreligion, profaneneſs, and impiety, and the conſequent diſregard to the authority of the juſt government, and happy conſtitution of theſe kingdoms. Three of theſe were formerly publiſhed, and a fourth is now added, preached in Queen's-college-chapel, in Oxford, on the founder's day, Aug. 15, 1748. In this diſcourſe the Doctor takes occaſion, from Rom. xiv. 16. *Let not your good be evil ſpoken of*, to conſider ſome particular points, in which the univerſities are moſt apt to be cenſured, and in which it chiefly behoves them, from the very nature of their inſtitution, to preſerve themſelves not only innocent, but unſuſpected. What he advances well deſerves the ſerious attention of thoſe to whom he addreſſes himſelf; but as the ſubject is not of general concern, we ſhall not enter into a particular account of what is ſaid upon it.

The ſubject of the ſecond of thoſe diſcourſes which are now publiſhed for the firſt time, is, the *love of pleaſure:* and here our Author, after vindicating our right to pleaſure, both as we are men and Chriſtians, offers ſeveral conſiderations and arguments againſt thoſe exceſſes into which the love of it is apt to lead

lead us. The words from which he diſcourſes are theſe—*Lovers of pleaſure more than lovers of God*, which are a very diſtinguiſhing part of that character, which St. Paul, in the ſpirit of prophecy, gives to Timothy, of that great and general apoſtacy from the faith and practice of Chriſtianity, which ſhould befall the church of God in the *laſt* days.

A ſhort extract from this ſermon will give the Reader a juſt idea of our Author's ſtile and manner.—'Whether this prophetic deſcription,' ſays he, 'given by the Apoſtle, of the laſt 'days, was intended as a characteriſtic of the laſt days of Jeru'ſalem, or of ſome latter age of the church, is not ſo material 'for us to enquire, as whether it be not too juſtly applicable to 'our *own*. For when, I pray, was the love of God and good'neſs more cold, and that of pleaſure, ſenſual intemperate plea'ſure more warm? In what age or nation were the juſt obli'gations to true religion and virtue, and the wiſdom and good'neſs of the works of nature and of grace, more clearly and ge'nerally made known, and yet more ſlightly or rarely regarded? 'When was the name and honour of God more openly blaſ'phemed by ſome, his ſacred word and ordinances more wan'tonly ridiculed by many, or the glorious cauſe of devotion 'and piety more ignominiouſly deſerted by almoſt all?

'On the other hand, as if this neglect and profanation of the 'ſervice and worſhip of the true God, were to be compenſated 'for by the devotion paid to that great idol of our affections, 'has not pleaſure a temple in almoſt every houſe, an altar in 'every heart? What zeal and reverence appear in all ranks 'for the ſlighteſt toys and trifles, if once called, and, as it were, 'conſecrated by that name? What curioſity and diligence to 'gild and refine the groſſeſt ſenſualities? What labour in le'vity, what pomp and apparatus for diſſipation and noiſe, whe'ther we make our home the public, or the public our home?

'Thus, by inverting the order, and confounding the diſtinc'tions of things, was ever the moſt luxurious ſtate or nation 'more prepoſterouſly ſedulous to make gaming all their ſtudy, 'and diverſion all their buſineſs? For are not the ſeveral ſtages 'of pleaſure, and relays of amuſement, regularly fixed in one 'uninterrupted ſucceſſion of vanity to vanity, and folly to folly, 'to carry us through the whole thoughtleſs years, without be'ing obliged to loſe a ſingle day (how ſacred and holy ſo ever) 'in ſerious recollection, or the odious drudgery of wiſdom and 'piety? To prevent which dreadful neceſſity, are not thoſe 'ſchemes of ſucceſſive vanity and folly, contrived, ſettled, and 'adjuſted for days, weeks, and months to come, with moſt ſe-

'rious premeditation, ſcrupulous nicety, and conſcientious ex-
'actneſs?

'And are they not (from our implicit obedience to that in-
'fallible guide, the mode) become engagements and duties of
'the firſt claſs and importance; not to be tranſgreſſed by us
'(what libertines and free-thinkers ſoever we may be in matters
'of leſs modiſh obligation) but at the peril of our friendſhips,
'reputations, and honours? And are not theſe ſolemn engage-
'ments often obſerved by us at the expence—I will not ſay of
'the dull domeſtic duties of life (for thoſe would be thought but
'a ſmall ſacrifice to them) but even at the riſque of fortune,
'health, and life, or, what is eſteemed above all theſe, at the
'expence of eaſe and pleaſure itſelf?

'And as if the nature of theſe extravagant pleaſures was not
'ſufficient to inſpire their followers with a due reliſh for levity
'and diſſipation; have not ſuch names been invented as might,
'to thoſe who are unacquainted with the real inſipidity of ſuch
'entertainments, ſeem intended to prepare them for the noiſe,
'diſſipation, confuſion, and riot, expected from every worſhip-
'per of this vain idol, in the celebration of ſome wild and fran-
'tic rites and ceremonies? In which profeſſed confuſion of the
'names as well as nature of things, are loſt all thoſe beautiful
'decencies and decorums, that mark the ſeveral diſtinctions of
'age, ſex, character, and condition.

'Where almoſt do we now ſee that reverence, which was
'once thought to be moſt religiouſly due from youth to age, ei-
'ther paid by the one, or deſerved by the other? Where is
'now that amiable ſenſitive modeſty of youth, eſpecially of the
'tender ſex, which was wont to ſhrink from the ſmalleſt inde-
'corums?—Is it not now grown dead and unmoved (at leaſt
'with indignation) at the profane jeſt, the obſcene alluſion, or
'the moſt impious, if but modiſh oath or imprecation?—In a
'word, though the *judgments of God have long been abroad in*
'*the earth, and ſhook the nations around us*; though a foreign
'and expenſive war has greatly diſtreſſed us, and inteſtine com-
'motions lately made the hearts of the mighty to faint within
'them; though the very opportunities of eaſe and wantonneſs
'have been thence abridged; and though the natural and moſt
'ſubſtantial means of luxury have been greatly leſſened by *the*
'*hand of the Lord upon the cattle in the field*; I ſay, notwith-
'ſtanding all theſe repeated alarms, to render us ſenſible of our
'impending danger, does it not ſtill ſeem to be the great buſi-
'neſs of this ſenſual and blinded people (as it once was of idola-
'trous Iſrael) *to ſit down to eat and to drink, and riſe up to*
'*play?*

'Now

'Now if ſuch a general levity of mind, and diſſolution of manners be the diſtinguiſhing characteriſtic of the preſent age, it highly concerns each of us to examine his own conſcience in this particular, and to draw thence the propereſt uſe of cenſuring the conduct of the public, viz. his own private reformation.'

In the third diſcourſe, the Doctor endeavours to revive the primitive ſpirit of peace and meekneſs; in order to which he enlarges upon the duty of being *at peace among ourſelves*, ſuggeſts the motives proper to enforce our obedience to it, and lays down ſome rules for the better diſcharge of it.

ΤΗΣ ΤΟΥ ΟΜΗΡΟΥ ΙΛΙΑΔΟΣ Ο ΤΟΜΟΣ ΠΡΟΤΕΡΟΣ. Folio. 2 vols. printed at Glaſgow. Price 1 l. 11 s. 6d. large paper, and 1 l. 1 s. the ſmall, in ſheets. Millar.

IT is with pleaſure we obſerve, that this moſt elegant edition of Homer's Iliad is inſcribed to the Prince of Wales, by his Royal Highneſs's permiſſion. We flatter ourſelves, from the early teſtimonies which this royal youth has given of his genius and judgment, that he will not only read Homer as a poet, but conſider him as a politician: and though his juvenile ardour will no doubt lead him to admire the animated valour and heroic atchievements of Achilles, yet we hope that he will likewiſe find charms in the characters of Neſtor and Ulyſſes.

This edition, publiſhed from the Univerſity preſs of Glaſgow, is printed, as appears by the preface, at the expence of the Profeſſors of that univerſity. We are told, that it is only intended as a trial, and that the Gentlemen propoſe to publiſh all the Greek and Latin claſſics with the ſame elegance and accuracy: it is, therefore, to be wiſhed, that this ſpecimen may meet with ſuch a favourable and generous reception, as may induce them to purſue their deſign with ſpirit; and that no lover of letters, whoſe circumſtances will allow him to encourage the merit he admires, will fail to adorn his library with this ſplendid impreſſion of the Iliad.

As to the matter, they profeſs to have followed Dr. Clarke's quarto edition, publiſhed in 1729; but as to the *form* and *manner*, to have imitated the magnificent one of Henry Stephens. We need not, however, heſitate to declare, that in the beauty of the paper

and the type, and in the correctneſs of the work, they have ſurpaſſed all which have hitherto appeared.

The curious Reader, by comparing this Edition with Dr. Clarke's, will find a difference in the accenting: but we are of opinion, that in this particular, the former has the preference, though Hederick and Patrick appear in juſtification of the learned Doctor's method.

In this Glaſgow edition, the words are all printed at full length. This likewiſe makes it preferable to the Doctor's, which, abounding with abbreviations, appears more confuſed, and ſooner tires the eye.

The learned and indefatigable Profeſſors, Meſſ. Moor and Muirhead, have, in their preface, done juſtice to the merit of Mr. Alexander Wilſon, the very ingenious Letter-founder of North-Britain. And from their account of their own extreme care and labour in correcting the proofs, which they aſſure us underwent no leſs than ſix different reviſals, and in comparing them with prior editions, we need not be ſurprized at that accuracy, for which the learned world is ſo highly indebted to them.

If this impreſſion had no other merit to recommend it than the improvement made in typography, that alone would be ſufficient to entitle it to the patronage of the public: but we are ſorry to obſerve, that the little encouragement given to the cultivation of arts and ſciences, is not the leaſt inſtance of the corruption and degeneracy of modern times.

If there was the ſmalleſt ſpark of national ſpirit among us, the liberal arts would not be ſo deſtitute of patrons as to fly abroad for protection. They who have no *taſte* to reliſh them, would, if they loved their country, patronize them from political principles.

The higher perfection the arts attain in any country, the greater will be the demand for its particular productions. The nation that out-rivals its neighbours, will become the mart of commerce: the ingenious and induſtrious will procure a comfortable ſubſiſtence; the inhabitants will multiply; and the kingdom increaſe in riches, and, conſequently, in power.

Miſcellaneous

Miſcellaneous Tracts on ſome curious and very intereſting ſubjects in Mechanics, Phyſical Aſtronomy, and Speculative Mathematics; wherein the preceſſion of the equinox, the nutation of the earth's axis, and the motion of the moon in her orbit, are determined. By Thomas Simpſon, *F. R. S. and Member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm.* 4to. 7 *s. ſew'd.* Nourſe.

THE many curious and uſeful pieces already publiſhed by this ingenious gentleman, ſufficiently demonſtrate his profound knowlege in the moſt intricate parts of the Newtonian philoſophy; and, conſequently, a collection of pieces on the moſt intereſting ſubjects from ſo able a hand, cannot fail of being kindly received by the public.

The book before us conſiſts of eight papers on different ſubjects; the firſt, and indeed the moſt conſiderable in the whole collection, is, 'A determination of the preceſſion of the equinox, and the different motions of the earth's axis, ariſing from the attractions of the ſun and moon.' A ſubject which has been attempted by ſeveral eminent mathematicians with various ſucceſs; but none have extended their enquiries ſo far as Mr. Simpſon, many of the effects not having been inveſtigated.

'The preceſſion of the equinox, ſays Mr. Simpſon, whereby the fixed ſtars appear to have changed their places by more than a whole ſign, ſince the time of the moſt antient aſtronomers, is phyſically accounted for, from the attraction of the ſun and moon on the protuberant matter about the earth's equator; whereby the poſition of the ſaid equator, with reſpect to the plane of the ecliptic, is ſubjected to a perpetual variation. Were the earth to be perfectly ſpherical, and of an uniform denſity, no change in the poſition of the terreſtrial equator could be produced from the attraction of any remote body; becauſe the force of each particle of matter in the earth, to turn the whole earth about its center, in conſequence of ſuch attraction, would then be exactly counterbalanced by an equal and contrary force. But as the earth, by reaſon of the centrifugal force of the parts thereof, ariſing from the diurnal rotation, muſt, to preſerve an equilibrium, put on an oblate figure, and riſe higher about the equatorial parts than at the poles, the action of the ſun on the ſaid equatorial parts, will have an effect to make the plane of the terreſtrial equator to coincide with that of the ecliptic: which would actually be brought to paſs (neglecting other cauſes) was the ſun or earth to remain fixed in either of the ſolſtices, and the diurnal rotation at the ſame time to ceaſe. But though both the motions of the earth contribute to prevent an effect of that ſort, yet, in conſequence of this action of the ſun, a new motion of

rotation about that diameter of the equator lying in the circle of the ſun's declination, is produced; from which the preceſſion of the equinox and the nutation of the earth's axis have their riſe.

'The effect of the moon, as it is much more conſiderable than that of the ſun, ſo it is likewiſe liable to ſome equalities to which that of the ſun is not ſubject. Were the inclination of the lunar orbit to the plane of the equator to remain always nearly the ſame, like that of the earth, the ſame calculations that anſwered in one caſe, would alſo anſwer in the other; but that inclination is continually varying, and when the aſcending node is in the beginning of Aries, is greater by above one-ſixth part than the mean value; and therefore, as the force of the moon to turn the earth about its center (other circumſtances remaining the ſame) is found hereafter to be as the ſine of the double of the inclination, it is manifeſt that, in the ſaid poſition of the node, the motion of the preceſſion will go on much quicker than at the mean rate; and conſequently, that an equation depending on the place of the node will neceſſarily ariſe.'

Our Author then proceeds to determine this equation, together with the other motions of preceſſion and nutation, ariſing from the attraction both of the ſun and moon; and, in order to this, premiſes the three following lemmas.

'1. Suppoſing all the particles of a given ſpheroid to be ſollicited parallel to the [leſſer] axis, by forces proportional to the diſtances from a plane paſſing by the ſaid axis, in ſuch ſort that the two oppoſite ſemi-ſpheroids may thereby be equally urged in contrary directions, it is propoſed to determine the whole effect of all the forces to turn the ſpheroid about its center.

'2. Suppoſe a body to revolve in the circumference of a circle, whilſt the circle itſelf turns uniformly about one of its diameters as an axis, with a very ſlow motion, it is propoſed to determine the law of the force, acting on the body in a direction perpendicular to the plane of the circle, neceſſary to the continuation of a motion thus compounded.

'3. Suppoſing all the particles of a given ellipſe to be urged from a right line coinciding with a given diameter, by forces proportioned to the diſtances from the ſaid line, ſuch that the force acting at a given diſtance, may be expreſſed by a given quantity; it is required to find the whole efficacy of all theſe forces, to turn the ellipſe about its center.'

Having premiſed theſe lemmas, and drawn from them ſeveral uſeful corollaries, Mr. Simpſon ſolves, in an elegant manner, the following problems.

'Prob. I.

'Prob. I. To determine the efficacy of the ſun's attraction on a corpuſcle, any where in the body of the body of theearth, to turn the earth about its center.

'Prob. II. To determine the change of the poſition of the terreſtrial equator, ariſing from the action of the ſun on the whole maſs of the earth, during any very ſmall interval of time.

'Prob. III. To determine the preceſſion of the equinox, and the nutation of the earth's axis, cauſed by the ſun, during any very ſmall interval of time; on the ſuppoſition of an uniform denſity of all the parts of the earth.

'Prob. IV. To determine the preceſſion of the equinox, and the nutation of the earth's axis, cauſed by the ſun, from the time of his appearing in the equinoctial point, to his arrival at any given diſtance therefrom.

'Prob. V. To determine the alteration of the poſition of the terreſtrial equator, ariſing from the action of the ſun on the whole maſs of the earth, during an inſtant of time.

'Prob. VI. To find the quantity of the preceſſion of the equinox, and alſo that of the nutation of the earth's axis, cauſed by the moon, during the time of half a revolution in her orbit.

'Prob. VII. To determine the preceſſion of the equinox, and the quantity of the nutation of the earth's axis, cauſed by the moon, during the time of half a revolution of the node of the moon's orbit.'

In the ſolution of theſe problems, Mr. Simpſon has diſcovered every thing neceſſary to be known with regard to the nutation of the earth's axis, and the preceſſion of the equinox; to which he ſubjoins the following neceſſary rules for determining how much the declinations and right-aſcenſions are affected by theſe inequalities.

'1. For the alteration of a ſtar's declination, and right aſcenſion, ariſing from the nutation of the earth's axis; it will be

'As the radius is to the ſine of the ſtar's right aſcenſion, ſo is the nutation (or the given alteration of the equator's inclination to the ecliptic) to the alteration of the ſtar's declination, cauſed by the nutation.

'And, as the co-tangent of the ſtar's declination is to the co-ſine of its right aſcenſion, ſo is the nutation to the alteration of the ſtar's right aſcenſion correſponding.

'2. For the alteration of the ſtar's declination and right aſcenſion, ariſing from the preceſſion of the equinox; it will be

'As the co-ſecant of the obliquity of the ecliptic is to the co-ſine of the ſtar's right aſcenſion, ſo is the preceſſion of the equinox (or the alteration of the ſtar's longitude) to the alteration of the ſtar's declination, cauſed by the preceſſion;

'And as the co-ſine of the ſtar's declination is to the co-tangent of its angle of poſition, ſo is the alteration of declination found by the laſt proportion, to the alteration of right aſcenſion, anſwering thereto.

'Any one but little acquainted with the ſphere, will eaſily ſee *when* theſe equations are additive, and *when* ſubſtractive: nor will it be at all difficult to comprehend the reaſons upon which they are founded; they being nothing more than ſo many particular caſes of the general relation ſubſiſting between the fluxions of the ſides and angles of a ſpherical triangle. It will not, however, be improper to remark here, that when the quantity of the preceſſion, in the ſecond of the preceding caſes, amounts to ſome minutes, it will be neceſſary, in order to have the concluſion ſufficiently exact, to make uſe of the mean right aſcenſion, at the middle of the given interval; which, from the given right aſcenſion at the beginning of the interval, may be eſtimated near enough for the purpoſe, in moſt caſes, without the trouble of a calculation: but in other caſes, and when the utmoſt exactneſs is required, it will be neceſſary to repeat the operation.'

The remaining pieces in this collection are, 1. 'A very exact method for finding the place of a planet in its orbit, from a correction of Ward's hypotheſis, by means of one or more equations, applied to the motion about the upper focus.

2. 'A determination of the difference between the motion of a comet in an elliptic and parabolic orb.

3. 'An attempt to ſhew the advantage ariſing by taking the mean of a number of obſervations in practical aſtronomy.

4. 'A determination of certain fluents, and the reſolution of ſome very uſeful equations in the higher orders of fluxions; by means of the meaſures of angles and ratios, and the right ſines and verſed ſines of circular arcs.

5. 'An inveſtigation of a general rule for the reſolution of iſoperimetrical problems of all orders.

6. 'Of the reduction of Algebraic equations, by the method of ſurd diviſors; containing an explanation of the grounds of that method, as it is laid down by Sir Iſaac Newton in his univerſal arithmetic.

7. 'The

7. 'The reſolution of ſome general problems in mechanics and phyſical aſtronomy.

Part of the third and fifth papers were inſerted in the philoſophical tranſactions; but they are here reprinted with conſiderable additions.

As it is impoſſible to give an intelligible extract of theſe papers, without inſerting the principal part of the operations, which would extend this article to an immoderate length, we ſhall conclude with obſerving, that the lovers of aſtronomy will be highly pleaſed with the laſt piece, as Mr. Simpſon has applied the general equations to the determinations of the lunar orbit.

The Covenant of Grace, and Baptiſm the Token of it, explained upon Scripture principles. By John Taylor, *D. D. of Norwich.* 12. Waugh *and* Fenner.

THE performance before us cannot fail of proving peculiarly acceptable to thoſe who entertain a due regard for the ſacred doctrines of Chriſtianity, as contained in the Holy Scriptures.

The learned author begins with ſtating the general notion, and giving the two principal acceptations, of the word *covenant*, which ſignifies the putting things into a *new ſtate*, by a *new conſtitution*; and this may be done either by an *abſolute unconditional promiſe*, or by a mutual engagement between parties, on certain *conditions*. Of the former kind is the covenant which God made with Noah and his ſons, and every living thing; of the ſame kind is that made with Abraham, viz. 'That in him all families of the earth ſhould be bleſſed;' and that by which a grant was made to the Jews, the natural ſeed of Abraham, of the land of Canaan. Of the latter kind was the Horeb covenant, which God made with the Iſraelites, when he brought them out of Egypt. Deut. xxix. 1.

The Abrahamic covenant, by which is meant that extenſive grant of bleſſings which God made unto Abraham, ſaying, *In thy ſeed ſhall all the nations of the earth be bleſſed*, is the ſubject of the preſent treatiſe. For the explication of this, it is obſerved,

1. That, including the ſeed or poſterity of Abraham, and giving them, before they were born, a right to the bleſſings of it,

it, it is a *free gift* from God. It is accordingly called in the New Teſtament, the *Promiſe*, the *Bleſſing*, and an *Inheritance*.

2. That as the bleſſings of it are of the higheſt kind, and in their own nature adapted to produce gratitude, and a ſenſe of duty, ſo it was neceſſary that the memory of ſuch a donation ſhould be preſerved to all ſucceeding generations. Hence the divine inſtitution of *circumciſion*, which was the ſeal of the grant or covenant. It is here remarked likewiſe, that this ſeal was with great propriety applied to infants, as it ſhewed, that the grant was of free grace; that circumciſion did not confer, but only declared the right to covenant-bleſſings; that though circumciſion was only applied to males, yet the right of the females was declared and confirmed. And laſtly, that circumciſion was an initiating ordinance, which declared once for all, an intereſt in all covenant-bleſſings, and a ſhare in all church-honours and privileges.

3. That whereas the covenant of *peculiarity* (by which is meant that mentioned in Gen. xv. 18, and which is annexed to the Abrahamic covenant) gave the Jews alone a right to the land of Canaan, the Abrahamic covenant included *all nations of the earth*, though God did not ſee fit to reveal and publiſh it to them; that theſe two grants do not interfere with, or invalidate each other; that being plainly diſtinct and unconnected, circumciſion might be applied to either, or both, as God ſhould appoint; that this was the token of both till the coming of the Meſſiah, at which time it ceaſed to be the token of the Abrahamic covenant, though it might remain to the Jews as a token of the covenant of peculiarity.

4. That the Abrahamic covenant was *confirmed*, or ratified of *God in Chriſt*. This is proved particularly from Gal. iii.

5. That it did include, and is in ſubſtance the ſame with the goſpel-covenant, which our Lord and his Apoſtles publiſhed to the world. This is demonſtrated by many unanſwerable arguments; from whence the two following remarks are juſtly inferred, viz. that 'circumciſion was a ſeal of the covenant of grace, as it was a ſeal of the Abrahamic covenant, and not a ſign only, as ſome aſſert, of the covenant of peculiarity;' and that thoſe very extenſive promiſes to Abraham, viz. *In thy ſeed ſhall all the nations of the earth be bleſſed; and I will be a God unto thee*, (however imperfectly underſtood by the Jews, under their leſſer degree of light) do include all the bleſſings that are freely beſtowed upon us in the goſpel, as they are diſplayed at large by our Lord and his Apoſtles.

6. That

6. That all this bleſſedneſs our God and Father of his mere grace hath beſtowed upon us, as freely and generouſly as he hath given us our breath and being. It is our birth-right, to which we and our children were born, and to which we have a right as ſoon as born.

This right and intereſt of infants, in the covenant, the Doctor illuſtrates by a few reflections upon the capacity of infants, and the nature of covenant-bleſſings conveyed to them; and then proceeds to the inference which naturally reſults from it, namely, 'that the baptizing of ſuch infants is a warrantable practice.'

What has been ſaid may be ſufficient to intimate to our Readers, the chief principles upon which infant-baptiſm is defended; but, for the farther illuſtration of this point, we muſt refer them to the treatiſe itſelf; and ſhall conclude with expreſſing our great ſatisfaction in peruſing it; not doubting alſo, that whoever underſtands, and attentively weighs the Doctor's arguments, and believes the circumciſion of infants to be a divine inſtitution, worthy its Author, will be convinced, that baptizing of infants, children of believers, is a divine inſtitution, every way worthy of him who hath ſaid, Go and baptize *all* nations in the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghoſt.

The General Hiſtory and State of Europe, Part VI. † *and laſt. Containing the Affairs of Spain, Germany, England, Holland, Italy, and the Northern Powers, in the ſeventeen Century, which connects the whole with the Age of Lewis* XIV. *Tranſlated from the Geneva Edition of M.* de Voltaire. 8vo. 2s. 6d Nourſe.

WE are now, without the leaſt ſymptom of wearineſs, arrived at the laſt ſtage of our journey round the world with Mr. Voltaire*. This concluding part firſt preſents us with a view of the Government and Manners of Spain; where we meet with a remarkable inſtance of abſurd policy, which produced the ruin of the country it was deſigned to preſerve.

† N. B. For our accounts of the former parts of this work, ſee Review, vol. X. p. 197, and vol. XII. p. 462; alſo for September laſt, p. 201, and for the preſent month. p. 318.

* The original is, the Univerſal Hiſtory of M. de Voltaire; tho' the Tranſlator has thought proper to alter and confine the title to Europe only.

The

The expulſion of the Moors was of infinite prejudice to this monarchy. 'Philip III, ſays our Hiſtorian, could not ſubdue a handful of Dutchmen; yet unfortunately he was able to drive ſix or ſeven hundred thouſand Moors out of his dominions. Thoſe remains of the ancient conquerors of Spain were moſtly diſarmed, employed in commerce and agriculture, leſs formidable in Spain than the Proteſtants in France, and far more uſeful, becauſe they were induſtrious in a country of indolence. They were obliged to pretend to be Chriſtians, yet continually perſecuted by the Inquiſition: this perſecution produced ſome revolts, but of no conſequence, and ſuch as were ſoon quelled. Henry IV wanted to take theſe people under his protection; but his correſpondence with them was diſcovered by the treachery of a Clerk in the Secretary's office; an accident which haſtened their diſperſion. The court had already determined to expel them. In vain did they propoſe to pay two millions of ducats for the liberty of breathing Spaniſh air; the Council was inflexible: five and twenty thouſand of the proſcribed took ſhelter in the mountains, but having no arms, they were ſoon obliged to ſubmit. Two whole years were ſpent in tranſporting the native inhabitants out of the kingdom, and in depopulating the ſtate. Thus did Philip deprive himſelf of the moſt induſtrious part of his ſubjects, inſtead of imitating the Turks, who know how to keep the Greeks in ſubjection, and are far from forcing them to look out for diſtant ſettlements.

'The greateſt part of thoſe Spaniſh Moors took ſhelter in Africa, their ancient country; ſome went into France, under the regency of Mary de Medicis; thoſe who would not renounce their religion, took ſhipping in France for Tunis; a few families, that made profeſſion of Chriſtianity, ſettled in Provence and Languedoc; ſome came as far as Paris, where their deſcendants are known. At length thoſe fugitives incorporated with a nation that has profited by the miſtake of Spain, though ſhe afterwards imitated this example in the emigration of the Proteſtants. Thus it is that all nations are mingled and abſorbed one within the other, ſometimes by perſecutions, and other times by conqueſts.

'This great emigration, together with that of the colonies, which avarice had tranſplanted to the new world, inſenſibly exhauſted the kingdom of inhabitants; ſo that in a ſhort time it was only a large body without vigour or motion. Superſtition, that diſtemper of impotent minds, proved a further diſgrace to the reign of Philip III; while his court was only a chaos of intrigues, like that of Lewis XIII.'——

This

This was ſuch an infatuation, that were it not ſo recent, and ſo well atteſted, it might with great reaſon be diſcredited; but —what ſhall we ſay? the difficulties and obſtructions with which matrimony is at preſent clogged in ſome parts of Europe, are, though not ſo great in degree, errors that bear near affinity to this ill-adviſed conduct of the Spaniards.

Next follow the Germans. The inteſtine commotions of the petty Princes of this country, merit no particular mention, eſpecially as Mr. Voltaire himſelf remarks, that Germany and the North, were far from making a great figure at this time.

The great revolutions that our own country then experienced, come next under conſideration. But theſe being ſufficiently known to us, we paſs them over.

Concerning Italy, our Author remarks, that it 'was the moſt flouriſhing, though not the moſt powerful, country in Europe: there was an end of thoſe foreign wars by which it had been ravaged after the reign of Charles VIII, King of France; there was no more talk of thoſe inteſtine broils betwixt different principalities and cities; in ſhort, no more to be heard of thoſe plots and conſpiracies that had been heretofore ſo frequent. Naples, Venice, Rome, and Florence, invited foreigners to Rome by their magnificence, and by the culture of the polite arts. The pleaſures of the mind were ſcarce known but in this climate; while religion was exhibited under a moſt pompous appearance, neceſſary for a people of ſuch exquiſite ſenſibility. It was only Italy that raiſed temples worthy of antiquity; and St. Peter's at Rome ſurpaſſed them all. If ſuperſtitious practices, falſe traditions, and forged miracles, ſtill ſubſiſted; they were deſpiſed by the wiſe, who knew full well, that there have been frauds in all ages to amuſe the vulgar.

'Perhaps the ultramontane Writers, who declaim with ſo much ſeverity againſt theſe abuſes, have not ſufficiently diſtinguiſhed betwixt the people and their guides. The Roman Senate were not to be deſpiſed, becauſe the temples of Æſculapius were *hanged* with the offerings of infirm people, whom nature had recovered; becauſe the altars of Neptune were adorned or disfigured by a thouſand votive pictures of voyagers, who had eſcaped with life upon being caſt away; or becauſe incenſe uſed to burn and ſmoke of itſelf on a ſacred ſtone in Egnatia. Several Proteſtants, after enjoying the pleaſures of Naples, have wrote moſt bitter invectives againſt the three miracles which are performed in that city on a particular day, when the blood of St. Januarius, St. John Baptiſt, and St. Stephen, preſerved in vials, begins to liquify at the approach of the heads of thoſe Saints. They accuſe the teachers of thoſe churches of attribut-

ing idle prodigies to the Deity. The learned and ingenious Mr. Addiſon ſays, *it is one of the moſt bungling tricks that he ever ſaw.* Thoſe authors might, upon reflection, have obſerved, that theſe inſtitutions are not prejudicial to morals, which ſhould be the principal aim of civil and eccleſiaſtic polity; that, in all probability, the lively imaginations of people in warm climates, have need of viſible ſigns to repreſent the Deity continually to their ſenſes; and, in fine, that theſe ſigns cannot be aboliſhed, till they become contemptible to thoſe by whom they are now revered.'

Here Mr. Voltaire acknowleges the ſuperſtitious practiſes, and forged miracles of the Catholic Prieſts; and that they were deſpiſed by the wiſe, and, conſequently, by himſelf; but then he deſpiſes them from a wrong principle; ſince he pleads a neceſſity of impoſing upon the vulgar. By the vulgar we underſtand the *majority* of a nation; and in a government calculated for *their advantage*, as all governments ought to be, there can be no reaſon for deluding them: as they poſſeſs common ſenſe, and are, therefore capable of perceiving whatever is for the *common good*, as readily as thoſe who are poliſhed by the refined arts. In thoſe governments indeed, where the emolument of the *Governors* only is conſulted, and where the populace are ſtudiouſly kept in ignorance, it may be neceſſary previouſly to impoſe upon thoſe they intend to inſlave.

In the foregoing part of this hiſtory, we ſaw the Hollanders ſtruggle for, and obtain, their freedom from Spaniſh bondage. In this we ſee them riſe to a degree of opulence and power ſcarce credible. It will not, therefore, be improper to purſue their ſtory, as contained in our Author's eleventh chapter.

'We have ſeen this Republic acknowleged a free and independent ſtate, by the King of Spain, its ancient maſter, after having purchaſed its liberty by a war of forty years. Induſtry and ſobriety were the firſt guardians of this liberty. It is related, that as the Marquis of Spinola, and the Preſident Richardot, were going to the Hague, in 1608, in order to negociate the firſt truce with the Dutch, they ſaw in their way eight or nine perſons ſtepping out of a little boat, and ſeating themſelves upon the graſs, where they made a frugal repaſt upon bread and cheeſe, and beer; each carrying his own proviſions. The Spaniſh Ambaſſadors aſked a peaſant, who were thoſe travellers; the peaſant anſwered; *they are the Deputies of the States, our Sovereign Lords and Maſters.* Upon which the Ambaſſadors cried out; *theſe people we ſhall never be able to conquer; we muſt even make peace with them.* This is very near what happened formerly to the Ambaſſadors of Sparta, and thoſe of the King of Perſia.

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The ſame manners might have produced the ſame adventure. In general the private people in thoſe provinces were poor at that time, and the ſtate was rich; whereas individuals are now grown rich, while the ſtate is indigent. The reaſon of this is, the firſt fruits of commerce had been conſecrated to the public ſecurity.

'Theſe people were neither poſſeſſed at that time of the Cape of Good Hope, which they did not take from the Portugueſe till the year 1653; nor of Cochin and its dependencies; nor of Molucca. They did not trade as yet directly to China. They were excluded from the commerce of Japan, till the year 1609, by the Portugueſe, or rather by the Spaniards, who were ſtill maſters of Portugal. But they had already ſubdued the Moluccas, and begun to make ſettlements at Java. From the year 1602 to 1609, the Eaſt-India company had made above twice their capital. Already had Ambaſſadors from Siam in 1608, paid the ſame honours to this trading nation, as they afterwards did to Lewis XIV. Japaneſe Ambaſſadors came likewiſe in 1609, to conclude a treaty at the Hague. The Emperor of Fez and Morocco applied to them for ſuccours of men and ſhips. Their fortune and their glory had been increaſing above forty years by commerce and war.

'The lenity of this government, and the toleration extended to all ſorts of religions, dangerous perhaps in other countries, but neceſſary in this, peopled Holland with a multitude of foreigners, eſpecially Walloons, whom the Inquiſition perſecuted in their own country, and who exchanged their ſervitude for freedom.

'The Calviniſtical perſuaſion, at that time predominant in Holland, contributed alſo to aggrandize the Republic. This country was too poor at that time to ſupport the magnificence of Prelates, or the multitude of religious orders; and a ſoil that required hands, could not admit of people who engage by oath, as much as in them lies, to let the human ſpecies periſh. They had the example of England before their eyes, which was become one third more populous, ſince the Miniſters of the altar enjoyed the comforts of matrimony, and the hopes of families were no longer buried in the celibacy of a cloiſter.

'Amſterdam, notwithſtanding the inconveniency of its port, was become the magazine of the univerſe. Every part of Holland was enriched and improved by immenſe labour. The waters of the ocean were ſhut out by double dykes. Canals were ſcooped in all the towns, and lined with free-ſtone; the ſtreets were turned into large quays, adorned with lofty trees. Boats laden with goods came up to the Merchants doors; while ſtrang-

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ers were never tired with admiring that ſingular mixture formed by the ridges of houſes, the tops of trees, and the ſtreamers flying, which exhibit the ſea, the town, and the country, all under one view.

'But human affairs are ever chequered with good and evil. Mankind are ſo apt to deviate from their principles, that this Republic herſelf was very near deſtroying the liberty for which ſhe had ſo bravely fought; and perſecution rioted in the blood of a people, whoſe happineſs and laws were founded on toleration. Two Calviniſtical Doctors did what ſo many Doctors have done in other places. Gomar and Arminius diſputed moſt furiouſly at Leyden, about what neither of them underſtood. This produced diſſentions in the United Provinces. The diſpute was, in many reſpects, ſimilar to thoſe of the Thomiſts and Scotiſts, or of the Janſeniſts and Moliniſts, concerning Predeſtination, Grace, Liberty, and other obſcure and frivilous articles, where they know not how to define the very ſubject about which they diſpute. The leiſure they enjoyed during the truce, unluckily gave thoſe ignorant people an opportunity to fill their heads with theologic diſputes; till at length, out of a ſcholaſtic controverſy, there aroſe two parties in the ſtate. Maurice, Prince of Orange, was at the head of the Gomariſts: the Penſionary Barnevelt favoured the Arminians. Du Maurier ſays, that he had been told by the Ambaſſador his father, that Maurice having propoſed to the Penſionary Barnevelt, to concur in giving him the ſupreme power, this zealous Republican ſhewed him the danger and injuſtice of the propoſal; and from that time Barnevelt's ruin was reſolved upon. This, however, is certain, that the Stadtholder endeavoured to increaſe his authority by means of the Gomariſts, and Barnevelt to check it by the help of the Arminians: that ſeveral towns levied ſoldiers, who were called *Expectants*, becauſe they *expected* their orders from the Magiſtrate, but would take none from the Stadtholder: that there were inſurrections in ſome cities; and that Prince Maurice vigorouſly perſecuted the oppoſite party. At length he convened a Calviniſtical Council at Dordrecht, compoſed of all the reformed Churches in Europe, except that of France, whom the King would not ſuffer to ſend her deputies. The Fathers of this ſynod, who had exclaimed ſo loudly againſt the Fathers of various councils, and againſt their authority, condemned the Arminians, juſt as they themſelves had been condemned by the council of Trent. Above a hundred Arminian Miniſters were baniſhed out of the United Provinces. Prince Maurice choſe ſix and twenty Commiſſioners from among the body of the Nobility and the Magiſtrates, to try the Grand Penſionary Barnevelt, the celebrated Grotius, and ſome others

others of the Arminian party. They had been kept ſix months in confinement, before they were brought to their trial.

'One of the chief motives of the revolt of the Seven Provinces, and of the houſe of Orange, againſt Spain, was the Duke of Alva's ſeverity, in ſuffering priſoners to languiſh a great while in confinement, without bringing them to a trial, and in appointing commiſſioners to condemn them. The ſame grievances which had cauſed ſuch complaints under the Spaniſh monarchy, were revived again in the boſom of Liberty. Barnevelt was beheaded at the Hague, more unjuſtly than Count Egmont, and Count Horn at Bruſſels. He was an old man of ſeventy, who had ſerved the Republic forty years in the cabinet, with as much ſucceſs as Maurice and his brothers had ſerved her in the field. The ſentence imported, *That he had done all he could to vex the Church of God.* Grotius, afterwards Ambaſſador from Sweden to France, and more illuſtrious for his writings than for his embaſſy, was condemned to perpetual impriſonment, from whence he eſcaped by the fortunate temerity of his wife. This violence of the Stadtholder produced conſpiracies, which were followed by more executions. A ſon of Barnevelt reſolved to revenge his father's blood upon Prince Maurice. The plot was diſcovered. His accomplices, at the head of whom was an Arminian Miniſter, all periſhed by the hands of the executioner. This ſon of Barnevelt had the good fortune to eſcape, while the reſt of the conſpirators were ſeized: but his younger brother was beheaded, merely for knowing of the conſpiracy. De Thou was executed in France for the ſame cauſe. The condemnation of the young Dutchman was infinitely more cruel: it was the higheſt pitch of injuſtice to put him to death, becauſe he would not turn informer againſt his brother. Had theſe melancholy times continued, the Dutch, with all their liberty, would have been more wretched than their anceſtors, when ſlaves to the Duke of Alva.

'Amſterdam, though full of Gomariſts, ſtill favoured the Arminians, and embraced the principle of toleration. The ambition and cruelty of Prince Maurice made a deep impreſſion on the minds of the Dutch; and the remembrance of Barnevelt's death contributed not a little to exclude the young Prince of Orange, William III, afterwards King of England, from the Stadtholderſhip. He was yet in his cradle, when the Penſionary De Wit ſtipulated, in the treaty of peace between the States General and Cromwell, in 1653, that there ſhould be no more Stadtholders in Holland. Cromwell perſecuted the memory of King Charles I in his grandſon; while the Penſionary DeWit was revenging the death of another Penſionary. This conduct

proved at length the fatal cauſe of the death of himſelf and his brother: but this was almoſt the only cataſtrophe in Holland, produced by the ſtruggle of liberty and ambition. The Eaſt-India company, independent of thoſe factions, built Batavia in 1618, in ſpite of the Kings of that country, and in ſpite of the Engliſh who came to attack this new ſettlement. The Dutch, tho' born in a marſhy, and in great meaſure barren, country, were erecting a kingdom under the fifth degree of North latitude, in the moſt fruitful part of the globe, where the fields are covered with rice, pepper, cinnamon; and where the vine bears fruit twice a year. They made themſelves maſters afterwards of Bantam in the ſame iſland, and drove the Engliſh from thence. This ſingle Company had eight large governments in the Indies, including the Cape of Good Hope, though at the moſt ſouthern point of Africa; an important poſt, which they took from the Portugueſe in 1653.

At the ſame time that the Dutch were eſtabliſhing themſelves at the extremity of the Eaſt, they began to extend their conqueſts weſtward in America, after the expiration of the twelve years truce with Spain. The Weſt-India Company made themſelves maſters of almoſt the whole country of Braſil from 1623 to 1636. It was amazing to ſee, by the regiſters of that Company, that, in ſo ſhort a ſpace, ſhe had fitted out eighteen hundred ſhips, as well for war as commerce, and had taken five hundred and forty-five ſail from the Spaniards. This Company was then ſuperior to that of the Eaſt-Indies; but, when the Portugueſe came to ſhake off the Spaniſh yoke, they defended their poſſeſſions better than the Kings of Spain had done; and they retook Braſil, where they have diſcovered new treaſures.

'The moſt profitable of all the Dutch expeditions was that of Admiral Peter Hen, who took the whole fleet of galleons, upon their return from the Havannah; and, by this ſingle voyage, brought home twenty millions of livres. The treaſures of the new world, which had been conquered by the Spaniards, only ſerved to enable their ancient ſubjects, now become a formidable enemy, to make head againſt them. During the ſpace of fourſcore years, with the interval only of a truce of twelve, the Republic maintained this war, in the Netherlands, in the Eaſt-Indies, and in the new world: ſhe was alſo able to conclude an advantageous peace at Munſter in 1647, independently of France her ally, and long her protectreſs, notwithſtanding ſhe had promiſed to ſign no treaty without the concurrence of this crown. Soon after, that is in 1652, and the following, ſhe was not afraid to break with England her former ally: ſhe fitted out as large a fleet as the Engliſh; when Admiral Tromp yielded to the famous Admiral Blake, only by loſing his life in a ſea engagement.

engagement. She afterwards ſuccoured the King of Denmark, who was beſieged in Copenhagen by Charles X, King of Sweden. Her fleet, under the command of Admiral Opdam, beat the Swediſh ſquadron, and raiſed the ſiege of Copenhagen. Still a rival to the Engliſh in commerce, ſhe waged war againſt Charles II, as ſhe had done before againſt Cromwell. She became the arbiter of Crowns in 1668, and obliged Lewis XIV to conclude a peace with Spain. This ſame Republic, at firſt ſo ſtrongly attached to France, became afterwards the ſupport of Spain againſt this Crown, to the end of the ſeventeenth century. She continued a long time to have a principal ſhare in the affairs of Europe. She roſe after her fall: and though reduced at preſent, ſhe ſubſiſts intirely by commerce, to which ſhe owed her riſe, without having made any conqueſt in Europe, except that of Maeſtricht, and a ſmall wretched country, which ſerves to cover her frontiers. Since the peace of Munſter ſhe has not at all increaſed: in which reſpect ſhe bears a greater reſemblance to the antient Republic of Tyre, powerful by her commerce only, than to Carthage, which had ſo many poſſeſſions in Africa, or to Venice, which had extended itſelf too much upon the Terra Firma.'

The affairs of Denmark, Sweden, Poland, and Ruſſia, come next in turn; concerning the latter, we find ſuch a ſucceſſion of Pretenders to the throne, and to the identity of the ſame perſon, that, though this article has already exceeded the proper limits, we ſhall here extend it a little further, for the entertainment of our Readers.

'Hiſtory hardly furniſhes a more extraordinary event, than that of the pretender Demetrius, who raiſed ſuch diſturbances in Ruſſia, after the death of John Baſilides. This Czar left two ſons; one named Fedor or Theodore, the other Demetri or Demetrius. Fedor ſucceeded his father; and Demetrius was confined to a village called Uglis, with the Czarina his mother. As yet the rude manners of that Court had not adopted the policy of the Turkiſh Sultans, and of the ancient Emperors of Greece, in ſacrificing the Princes of the Blood to the ſecurity of the Throne. The Prime-Miniſter, whoſe name was Boris-Gudenou, and whoſe ſiſter had been married to the Czar Fedor, perſuaded his maſter, that he ſhould never reign quietly, but by imitating the Turks, and aſſaſſinating his brother. In conſequence hereof an Officer was ſent to the village where young Demetrius was brought up, with orders to kill him. The Officer, at his return, ſaid he had executed his commiſſion, and demanded the reward that had been promiſed him. All the reward Boris gave the murderer was to kill him alſo, in order to ſuppreſs every proof of the guilt. It is ſaid that Boris poiſoned

the Czar Fedor ſome time after; and though he was ſuſpected of the crime, yet this did not hinder him from aſcending the throne.

'At that time appeared a young man in Lithuania, who pretended to be Prince Demetrius, that had eſcaped out of the hands of the aſſaſſin. Several, who had ſeen him at his mother's, knew him again by particular marks. He bore a perfect reſemblance to the Prince; he ſhewed the croſs ſet with diamonds, that had been tied about Demetrius's neck. The Palatine of Sandomir acknowleged him preſently for the ſon of John Baſilides, and for the lawful Czar. The Diet of Poland made a ſolemn inquiry into the proofs of his royal extraction; and, finding them paſt all doubt, furniſhed him with an army to drive out the Uſurper Boris, and to recover the throne of his anceſtors.

'In the mean while Demetrius was treated in Ruſſia as an impoſtor, and even as a magician. The Ruſſians could not believe that a Demetrius, who was ſupported by the Poles, a Catholic nation, and who had two Jeſuits for his Council, could be their real King. So little did the Boyars queſtion his being an impoſtor, that, upon the deceaſe of the Czar Boris, they made no difficulty to place his ſon, then only fifteen years of age, on the throne.

'Mean while Demetrius was upon his march into Ruſſia, with a Poliſh army. They who were diſſatisfied at that time with the Ruſſian government, declared in his favour. A General of that nation, advancing within ſight of Demetrius's army, cried out, *He is the only lawful Heir of the Empire*, and immediately went over with the troops under his command. The revolution was ſudden and compleat; and Demetrius ceaſed to be a Magician. The inhabitants of Moſcow ran to the palace, and dragged the mother and ſon of Boris to priſon. Demetrius was proclaimed Czar without contradiction. It was given out that young Boris and his mother had killed themſelves in priſon; but it is more likely that Demetrius put them to death.

'The widow of John Baſilides, mother of the real or pretended Demetrius, had been baniſhed long ſince to the North of Ruſſia; the new Czar ſent a magnificent coach to bring her to Moſcow. He went himſelf part of the way to meet her; they embraced each other with tranſports and tears of joy, in the preſence of a prodigious multitude; ſo that no body doubted but Demetrius was the lawful Emperor. He married the daughter of the Palatine of Sandomir, his firſt Protector; and this is what ruined him. The people were ſhocked to ſee a Catholic Empreſs, a Court compoſed of Foreigners, and, above all, a Church

Church built for the Jeſuits. Demetrius was no longer looked upon as a Ruſſian.

'In the midſt of the entertainments at the marriage of the Czar, a Boyar, whoſe name was Zuſki, puts himſelf, at the head of a number of conſpirators, who, entering the palace, with the ſword in one hand, and a croſs in the other, cut the Poliſh guard in pieces. Demetrius is loaded with chains. The conſpirators confront him with the Czarina, widow of John Baſilides, who had ſo ſolemnly acknowleged him for her ſon. The Clergy obliged her to ſwear upon the croſs, and to declare whether Demetrius was her ſon or not. Upon which, whether it was that the apprehenſion of death forced this Princeſs to take a falſe oath, and to get the better of nature, or whether ſhe did it out of regard to the real truth, ſhe declared, with tears in her eyes, that the Czar was not her ſon, that the real Demetrius had been murdered in his infancy, and that ſhe had only followed the example of the whole nation in acknowleging the new Czar, and to be revenged for the blood of her ſon upon a family of aſſaſſins. Then Demetrius was ſaid to be an ordinary fellow, named *Griska Utropoya*, who had been for ſome time a Monk in a Ruſſian convent. Before, they had reproached him with not following the Greek ritual, and with differing intirely from the cuſtoms and manners of Ruſſia; and now they charged him with being a Ruſſian peaſant, and a Greek Monk. Let him be what he would, Zuſki, the chief of the conſpirators, killed him with his own hand, and took his place.

'This new Czar, having ſuddenly mounted the throne, ſent back the few Poles that had eſcaped the maſſacre, to their own country. As he had no other right to the crown than his having aſſaſſinated Demetrius, the reſt of the Boyars, who were now become his ſubjects, ſoon pretended that the late Czar was not an impoſtor, but the real Demetrius, and that the murderer was unworthy of the throne. The name of Demetrius became dear to the Ruſſians. The Chancellor of the murdered Czar declared, that he was not dead, but would quickly recover of his wounds, and appear again at the head of his loyal ſubjects.

'This Chancellor traverſed every part of Muſcovy, with a young man in a litter, whom he called Demetrius, and treated as a Sovereign. At the very ſound of Demetrius the people roſe up; they fought ſome battles in his name, without ſo much as ſeeing him; but the Chancellor's party having been defeated, this ſecond Demetrius ſoon diſappeared. However, the people were ſo ſtruck with this name, that a third Demetrius preſented himſelf in Poland. This man was more fortunate than the reſt: being ſupported by Sigiſmund King of Poland,

he went and laid ſiege to Moſcow, where Zuſki reſided. The tyrant was ſhut up in this capital; but he had ſtill in his power the firſt Demetrius's widow, and the Palatine of Sandomir, that widow's father. The third Demetrius demanded the Princeſs his wife. Zuſki delivered both the father and the daughter, hoping perhaps to ſoften the King of Poland; or flattering himſelf that the Palatine's daughter would not acknowlege the impoſtor. But this impoſtor was victorious; the widow of the firſt declared this third Demetrius to be her real huſband; ſo that as the firſt of that name found out his mother, the third as eaſily found out his wife. The Palatine ſwore that this was his ſon-in-law; and the people made no longer any doubt of it. The Boyars, divided betwixt the uſurper Zuſki and the impoſtor, would acknowlege neither. They depoſed Zuſki, and ſhut him up in a convent. This was ſtill a ſuperſtition of the Ruſſians, as it had been of the ancient Greek church, that a Prince who had been once a Monk, was incapable of ever reigning again: and this ſame opinion had been inſenſibly introduced alſo into the Latin church. Zuſki appear'd no more; and Demetrius was aſſaſſinated at a public entertainment, by a gang of Tartars.

'The Boyars then offered their crown to Prince Ladiſlaus, ſon of Sigiſmund King of Poland. Ladiſlaus was preparing to accept of it, when behold a fourth Demetrius ſtarts up, and enters the liſts with him. This man gave out, that God had conſtantly preſerved him, though he had been aſſaſſinated at Uglis by the tyrant Boris, at Moſcow by the uſurper Zuſki, and afterwards by the Tartars. He found partizans that believed in thoſe three miracles. The town of Pleſkou acknowleged him as Czar; here he fixed his reſidence a few years; during which time the Ruſſians repenting they had called in the Poles, drove them back again; and Sigiſmund renounced all hopes of ſeeing his ſon Ladiſlaus ſeated on the Ruſſian throne. In the midſt of theſe diſturbances the ſon of the Patriarch Fedor Romanow was made Czar. This Patriarch was related by the females to the Czar John Baſilides. His ſon, Michael Federowitz, that is, ſon of Fedor, was choſen to this dignity at the age of ſeventeen, by his father's influence. All Ruſſia acknowleged him for her Sovereign, and the city of Pleſkou delivered up to him the fourth Demetrius, who was hanged.

'There ſtill remained a fifth, the ſon of the firſt, who had been really Czar, and married the daughter of the Palatine of Sandomir. His mother removed him from Moſcow, when ſhe went to meet the third Demetrius, and pretended to acknowlege him for her real huſband. She retired afterwards among the Coſſacks along with this child, who was looked upon, and might be really, the grandſon of John Baſilides: but as ſoon as Michael

Michael Federowitz was ſeated on the throne, he obliged the Coſſacks to deliver up the mother and the child, who were both drowned.

'One would not have expected a ſixth Demetrius. Yet, during the reign of Michael Federowitz in Ruſſia, and Ladiſlaus in Poland, a new pretender of this name appeared at the court of Ruſſia. As ſome young people were bathing one day with a Coſſack of their own age, they took notice of Ruſſian characters on his back, pricked with a needle; and they found them to be, *Demetrius ſon of the Czar Demetrius.* He was ſuppoſed to be the ſame ſon of the firſt Demetrius, by the Palatine of Sandomir's daughter, whom the Czar Federowitz had cauſed to be drowned. God had operated a miracle to ſave him; he was treated as the Czar's ſon at the court of Ladiſlaus; and they intended to make uſe of him in order to excite freſh diſturbances in Ruſſia. The death of his protector Ladiſlaus blaſted all his hopes. He retired to Sweden, and from thence to Holſtein; but, unfortunately for this adventurer, the Duke of Holſtein having ſent an Embaſſy into Ruſſia, in order to open a communication for a ſilk trade with Perſia, and the Ambaſſador having had no other ſucceſs but to contract debts at Moſcow, the Duke of Holſtein got rid of the debt by delivering up this laſt Demetrius, who was quartered alive.

'Theſe adventures, which ſound as fabulous, and yet are extremely true, do not happen among a civilized people, that have a regular form of government.—The Czar Alexis, ſon of Michael Federowitz, and grandſon of the Patriarch Fedor Romanow, crowned in 1645, is hardly ever mentioned in Europe any otherwiſe than as father of Peter the Great.'

The following paragraph will not be an improper concluſion to the various extracts we have produced from this pleaſing Hiſtory. After mentioning the affairs of the Ottoman Port, and the murder of the Sultan Ibrahim, the author thus ſums up the heads of the whole.

'It was very extraordinary that this period, ſo fatal to Ibrahim, ſhould be the ſame to all crowned heads. The famous war of thirty years had ſhaken the Imperial throne of Germany. France was torn by civil diſſentions, which obliged the mother of Lewis XIV to fly with her children from the capital. In England, Charles I was condemned to death by his ſubjects. Philip IV, King of Spain, after loſing almoſt all his poſſeſſions in Aſia, had been likewiſe ſtripped of Portugal. The beginning of the ſeventeenth century was the Era of Uſurpers, almoſt from one extremity of the globe to the other. Cromwell made himſelf maſter of England, Scotland, and Ireland. A Rebel, whoſe name was Liſtching, obliged the laſt Emperor of the Chi-

neſe to ſtrangle himſelf, together with his wife and children; which opened a paſſage into China to the Tartar conquerors. In India Aurengzeb rebelled againſt his father, who died of a lingering death in priſon, while the ſon enjoyed in peace the fruit of his iniquity. Mulei-Iſmael, the greateſt of Tyrants, was practiſing the moſt horrid cruelties in the empire of Morocco. Of all the Kings upon earth, thoſe two Uſurpers, Aurengzeb and Mulei Iſmael, lived the happieſt and the longeſt. They were both above a hundred years old when they died. Cromwell, tho' as wicked as either of them, did not live ſo long, but ruled and died in peace. If we examine into the Hiſtory of the world, we ſhall find weak Princes unfortunate, and great Villains ſucceſsful; as if the globe were a vaſt ſcene of plunder and devaſtation, abandoned to fortune and caprice.'

We have now peruſed the whole of this work; and have but this to add concerning it, that, allowing Mr. Voltaire his prejudices, of which he has as few as moſt Writers, and none are *abſolutely* without,—it is one of the moſt lively and agreeable Hiſtories that have been produced, ſince Hiſtories have been written.

Regulations for the Pruſſian Cavalry. Tranſlated from the German Original, by Capt. William Faucitt. 8vo. 6*s.* Nourſe.

IN the laſt paragraph of this book we are informed, that 'ſince the original publication of theſe Regulations, in the year 1726, a great many material alterations have been made in the exerciſe, the duty, the cloathing, and other parts; his Majeſty therefore has been graciouſly pleaſed to give out theſe new regulations for the cavalry, which are dictated, word for word, by himſelf, and comprehend, in a regular and diſtinct courſe, directions at large for the performance of the whole exerciſe, on horſeback and on foot, the duty in camp and in garriſon, together with ſome further inſtructions for the behaviour of Officers in general upon all occaſions; ſo that no event, of however ſmall importance, can at any time happen, in reference to which his Majeſty has not preſcribed a certain rule of conduct.'

Of the authenticity of this work there is, therefore, not the leaſt doubt. Theſe orders were certainly dictated by this truly great Prince, and are a ſufficient proof of his military genius and attention, even to the moſt minute particulars relating to his incomparable army. With ſo diſtinct and comprehenſive a guide it is next to impoſſible that an Officer ſhould miſtake his duty; at

at leaſt it muſt be owing to his own unpardonable want of attention: if, therefore, puniſhments are inflicted with the inexorable rigour with which they are denounced, he muſt of neceſſity acknowlege that his diſgrace was juſt. We ſhall now ſelect a few of thoſe paſſages which we apprehend will be moſt entertaining to our Readers, and at the ſame time give them ſome idea of theſe *Regulations*.

The Pruſſian Huſſars are a kind of troops with which our Readers are little acquainted: we ſhall, therefore, begin with the following chapter.

Concerning the Review of a Regiment of Huſſars, and their Exerciſe on Horſeback.

'At the King's arrival, the Colonel, and every commanding Officer, gives the word, *Draw your Swords!* and, after his Majeſty has reviewed them ſtanding; *Center and rear ranks, move forward to cloſe order! March! by diviſions, march!*

'After every ſquadron has marched paſt by diviſions, and the word of command is given, *Form ſquadrons!* the diviſions are to march up in full gallop, the ſecond forming upon the right of the firſt, and the third upon the left of it.'

After this follow the wheelings, which are done in the ſame manner as is now practiſed by our dragoons. 'Then the commanding Officer gives the word, *Charge by diviſions!* upon which the firſt diviſion of every ſquadron moves forward in full gallop, and forms in two ranks, letting their ſabres hang over their wriſts: the firſt rank fires their carbines; after that, the ſecond advances before the firſt, and fires theirs; then the firſt rank advances before the ſecond, and fires one piſtol; after which, the ſecond advances before the firſt, and does the ſame; then the firſt rank advances again, and fires the ſecond piſtol; which is followed, and performed in like manner, by the ſecond rank; but great care muſt be taken in the performance of this evolution, that the Huſſars do not diſcharge their pieces behind one another, and ſo deſtroy themſelves.'

The ſecond and third diviſions of each ſquadron then perform the ſame. 'When the third diviſions have fired their carbines and piſtols, and begin their retreat, the ſecond diviſions are to advance about thirty paces upon a gallop, ſword in hand, at which diſtance they are to raiſe themſelves off their ſaddles, and make a ſtroke; their charge being to ſecond that of the third diviſions, and alſo to cover their retreat.'

Then the two center ſquadrons move out about ſix hundred paces in the front, where they are to repreſent the enemy; and the

the commanding officers of the remaining ſquadrons are to detach ſix files from the right of each, 'who diſperſing themſelves round about the enemy, are to attack them in flank and rear, and fire their piſtols: after which they are to retreat to their reſpective ſquadrons, and the ſix next files are to be detached, and to diſcharge their piſtols at the enemy: this method of attack muſt be continued till a march is ſounded, and they are to charge in ſquadrons.—

'The Huſſars are never to engage with their whole force at firſt, but muſt always keep a large body in reſerve; and as ſoon as they perceive the enemy fall into diſorder, they are then to make the general attack with all their fury, and totally defeat them.'

Part V. Chap. 11. *Of the Performance of Divine Service in the Army.*

'Prayers muſt be read twice a day; immediately after guard-mounting in the morning, and at ſix in the evening.—When the regiment has formed the circle, prayers are to be read, and all the officers, non-commiſſioned officers, and private men, who are not on duty, muſt attend.—On Sundays, at nine o'clock, a ſermon is to be preached, and the ſervice may laſt an hour: in a ſtanding camp, the communion ſhall be adminiſtered every fourteen days.'

Chap. 23. *Directions to General Officers for the keeping of their Tables in Camp.*

'A Field-Marſhal ſhall have one large table of ten covers, without any deſert; and one ſmall table, of ſix covers, for the orderly officers.

'A General of the Horſe ſhall have one table, with eight covers, and ſix diſhes, without any deſert; and one ſmall table, with four covers, for the orderly officers.

'A Lieutenant-General ſhall have one table, with eight covers, and ſix diſhes, without any deſert: and a Major-General one table, with ſix covers, and five diſhes, without deſert.

'No entertainment ſhall be given in the evenings, and any officer diſobeying this order, ſhall forfeit ſix hundred ducats to the invalid-fund; the payment of which ſhall be ſecured by the Solicitor-General.'

Part VI. Chap. 12. *Of Military Honours.*

'When his Majeſty halts only for a night in a garriſon, no ſeparate guard is to mount at his quarters, without his expreſs

order for it: but two centinels are only to be poſted before the houſe, and two non-commiſſioned officers before his chamber, which are to be furniſhed by the main guard.

'All guards ought to ſound, or beat a march to the King, and the officers to ſalute; but as it is his Majeſty's pleaſure, that the proper honours ſhall not be paid to him, neither the one nor the other muſt be done; and the guards are to receive him with reſted arms only.'

Part VIII. Chap. 8. *Of Duelling.*

'When officers, notwithſtanding all orders to the contrary, get drunk together, begin quarrels, rencounters, and duels, either in liquor, or at play, or are guilty of any other ſuch like offenſive practices, they muſt be put under arreſt, and tried by a court-martial, which ſhall adjudge a double degree of puniſhment for every crime committed in conſequence of drunkenneſs; as for example, when an officer, being ſober, is guilty of a crime for which, according to the articles of war, he is condemned to loſe three months pay, to be confined a year in a fortreſs, to be caſhiered, to be ſhot, or beheaded; for the ſame crime committed when drunk, he ſhall loſe ſix months pay inſtead of three; ſhall be confined two years inſtead of one; be caſhiered with the addition of infamy, inſtead of a ſimple diſmiſſion; be * beheaded, inſtead of being ſhot; and inſtead of being beheaded, be hanged.'

Chap. 11. *Of the Marriage of Officers.*

'When a Field-Officer, or Captain, having a troop or ſquadron, is deſirous to marry, he muſt write to his Majeſty for his permiſſion, who, provided the match be ſuitable to his rank, and that he will be able to advantage himſelf by it, will not refuſe it; nevertheleſs, he would be much better pleaſed, if ſuch officer would remain unmarried. Subaltern officers will not be permitted to marry; they are therefore not to make application on that account, unleſs ſome one in low circumſtances has an opportunity to make his fortune by ſo doing, in which caſe the Colonel, or Commandant of the regiment, muſt write to his Majeſty, giving a particular and juſt account of the circumſtances which will attend ſuch marriage, whereupon he will reſerve to himſelf, whether to grant or refuſe permiſſion.—

The following orders, alſo, deſerve particular notice; 'No Captain, much leſs Subaltern, ſhall preſume to borrow money, without

* In Germany a man needs not any degree of nobility to obtain the honour of being beheaded: it is commonly conferred upon the moſt ignoble malefactors,

the

the knowlege of the commanding officer of the regiment; nor, under any pretence whatſoever, take up goods upon credit.—Subaltern officers are eſpecially enjoined not to contract a debt exceeding eight dollars.—If, notwithſtanding, they do contract debts unknown to their commanding officer, they ſhall be put under arreſt, whether they are able to diſcharge them or not, and reported to his Majeſty, who will order every Captain ſo offending to be puniſhed, and afterwards put under ſtoppages; but the Subalterns ſhall be ſent to the main guard, till the amount of their pay becomes ſufficient to diſcharge the debt; after which the ſum ſo deducted ſhall not be paid to their creditors, but laid out for the benefit of the invalids, and the creditors moreover puniſhed.

As we are not unacquainted with the German original of this work, we dare anſwer for its being juſtly tranſlated, excepting a very few inſtances. In the fifth chapter of part the eight. 'If a recruiting non-commiſſioned officer ſuffers any man to deſert for money, he ſhall be condemned to the *karre* for three years.' This *karre* is the German word, which the tranſlator ſeems to have miſtaken for the name of ſome place of confinement. Now this *karre* is nothing more than a *cart*, to which the malefactor is chained, and is employed in keeping the fortifications in repair.

N. B. For our account of this Gentleman's tranſlation of the Regulations for the Pruſſian INFANTRY, ſee Review, Vol. XI. p. 138. We proceed now to another work juſt publiſhed, bearing the ſame title.

New Regulations for the Pruſſian Infantry: containing an exact detail of the preſent Field Service: and particularly the moſt eſſential and recent parts of the Foot-Exerciſe. With ſeveral articles never before made public. The whole tranſlated from the original German manuſcript, and illuſtrated with various repreſentations of the exerciſe, in ſixteen copper-plates. 4to. 6s. ſewed. Rivington and Fletcher.

IN the army, as in the law, orders and regulations, like acts of parliament, are daily multiplying, and conſtantly ſuperceding each other; inſomuch, that it requires a ſupernatural memory to know which are in force, and which have been repealed. There are many curious gentlemen of the ſcarlet cloth, who, in collecting general and regimental orders, have taken the pains to write whole volumes; all which, except thoſe of the laſt year, are now become waſte paper. Great men are oftentimes *greatly* whimſical, and in this, as in many other caſes, frequently iſſue new orders merely to indulge themſelves in the plea-

pleaſure of exerciſing their power, or for the ſake of undoing that which a predeceſſor had eſtabliſhed. Thoſe who are grown old in the ſervice will tell you, that they have been *learning* and *unlearning* all their lives; that, from their firſt carrying colours, they have never acted two years together upon the ſame principles. It is but within theſe ſix months, that we, in this kingdom, have found out the right method of carrying our firelocks. Formerly, all the motions were to be performed with eaſe, and gracefully: now, they are to be done rapidly, and *with a ſpring*. In ſhort the whole manuel exerciſe is entirely changed; and *Bland*, who is become as obſelete and uſeleſs as an old almanack, is by this time, perhaps, univerſally twiſted into *papillots*. *Pruſſian* is now the *word*, and probably will ſoon be the *blow*; for the *pattern regiment* hath already introduced the Pruſſian *prügel* with great liberality.

The firſt part of theſe Regulations are relative to the field duty, according to the preſent eſtabliſhed practice of the Pruſſian armies, and are, in ſome uneſſential particulars only, different from thoſe already tranſlated into our language, as may be ſeen by comparing them with the eighth part of the Regulations for the Pruſſian Infantry.

The ſecond part of this work contains alſo many repetitions of thoſe Regulations already publiſhed. That which is entirely new, is chiefly thoſe parts of it relating to the deploy, or paſſage, and the manner of a regiment's changing its front with expedition. By the deploy, which the Germans call *deployern*, is meant the oblique marching of a body of men, advancing yet inclining to the right or left, ſo as at the ſame time to preſerve their proper front towards the enemy. This is performed by each man's croſſing one foot over the other, in the ſame manner as is conſtantly practiſed by our cavalry. The deſign of it is, to gain the time that muſt be loſt by firſt facing your men to the right or left, and then marching them ſtraight forward; and alſo to keep your troops in a conſtant poſition of defence. It is chiefly of uſe in paſſing defiles: for ſuppoſing, that you have room for no more than a platoon in front, thoſe which follow, march obliquely to the right or left, and by that means your battalion will be much ſooner formed, and ready to engage an enemy that might oppoſe their paſſage, than by any other method.

We ſhall tranſcribe the greateſt part of one of the chapters relative to a battalion changing its front.

'When a battalion is marched off to the right or left, and is to change its front during the march, the platoons are to wheel in the manner directed in plate 11, in which the battalion is re-

than

preſented marching off to the left.' (this *manner* is nothing more than ſimply wheeling to the left.) 'The commanding officer then gives the word

'*Take care the battalion to perform the counter-march!* on which the Captain of the eighth platoon commands, *To the left! march!* and marches ſo far ſideways by files, till he has gained a ſufficient diſtance to march in front, in the rear of the battalion; where he gives the word, *Halt! to the left! march!* and marches to the ground where the firſt platoon ſtood; he muſt therefore march cloſe by the rear of the battalion, and as ſoon as he has paſt the firſt platoon, he begins inclining to the left, and gives the word, yet not too loud, *Incline to the left!*

'Section 2. All the other platoons are to march by the left, and follow the eighth; the flank-men are to cover their leaders exactly, and all the platoons to incline to the left: and as ſoon as the Captain of the left flank is come to his ground, he puts his hand up to his hat, as a ſignal to the commanding officer, who, when all the platoons have their proper diſtance, gives the word, *Battalion! halt! front!* The battalion then comes to the left about again, after which the word is given, *To the left wheel by Platoons! march!* Thus the whole front becomes entirely changed.'—

The next chapter contains directions for a battalion marching in front, to change its front; which is performed by counter-marching the whole by files.

With ſubmiſſion to ſo great a General as the King of Pruſſia, we humbly apprehend both theſe methods to be the moſt tedious, and moſt dangerous, he could poſſibly have contrived. In the firſt, his battalion would, during its evolution, be more diſlocated than any battalion ought ever to be when danger is apprehended; and it is therefore imagined, that it would much better anſwer his purpoſe, both as to celerity and ſafety, firſt to form the battalion to the right, (ſuppoſing it to have marched off to the left) and then to wheel it upon the center: which is always the ſafeſt and moſt expeditious method of changing your front. This may evidently be performed in half the time, and is certainly leſs dangerous, and more graceful.

The

The Occaſional Critic; or, the Decrees of the Scotch Tribunal in the Critical Review Rejudged. In which the Learning, Philoſophy, Science, Taſte, Knowlege of Mankind, Hiſtory, Phyſic, Belles Lettres, and Polite Arts, the Candour, Integrity, Impartiality, Abilities, Pretenſions, Performances, Deſigns, &c. &c. &c. &c. &c. &c. &c. &c. &c. of the Gentlemen Authors of this Work, are placed in a true Light. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cooper.

WE have ever thought that the uſe of Learning was to teach us how to ſubject our Paſſions to the dominion of Reaſon, to poliſh our Manners, and to render us complacent, agreeable, and uſeful to each other.

Learning, we apprehended, was the means of promoting theſe deſirable ends, by furniſhing the mind with matter for reflection, which might enable us to diſcover and correct the imperfections of our nature, and, by making us conſcious of our own frailty and incapacity, diſpoſe us to bear with the weakneſs and infirmities of others.

We have been taught to believe, that Learning contributed to moderate pride, abate ſelf-ſufficiency, and reſtrain revenge;—we imagined that it infuſed charity, inculcated moderation, and excited benevolence.

The Poets and Philoſophers of all ages, have concurred to lead us into this miſtaken opinion. Among the former, Ovid has deceived us, by ſaying that Learning—ſoftens our manners, and checks our ferocity.

Emollit Mores, nec ſinit eſſe Feros.

Among the latter, Cicero has impoſed upon us, by affirming that Learning, is—*Recte faciendi & bene dicendi Magiſtra*—that it not only teaches us to ſpeak, but to act, with propriety.

But whatever *Men of Letters* may have been in former days, if we were to allow this *Occaſional Critic* a place among the modern Literati, and were to judge of *them* from *him*, they would appear to be very different Beings from the learned among the antients; and their characters would by no means juſtify the compliment which former ages have ſo liberally paid to learning.

His wit, if any thing in this pamphlet can deſerve that name, is of the loweſt kind: and his conteſt with the Writers to whom he has addreſſed this tedious and miſerable Hypercriticiſm, is carried on in the moſt illiberal and abuſive manner. His work is, more-

moreover, ſuch a maſterpiece of immundity, ſuch a filthy production; that he has even ranſack'd the Jakes for compariſons and illuſtrations: in a word, it abounds with ſuch ideas and expreſſions, as a man of common decency would bluſh to utter, even in private company.

He is particularly inexcuſable for adopting vulgar and national reflections; and for treating the Scotch with a brutiſh inſolence, which no provocation can juſtify. If any of his antagoniſts are of that nation, and have offended him, is he therefore to libel the whole country?

As the Union has joined England and Scotland into one kingdom, no friend to Great Britain will attempt to diſunite them, by reviving ancient prejudices, or raiſing new jealouſies, between South and North-Britons. Beſides, it is but juſtice to acknowlege, that the Scotch are, in general, learned, temperate, and induſtrious: and tho', without doubt, they are ſometimes *blameably* national, yet we ſhould remember, that, however they err in the extreme, their error, nevertheleſs, ariſes from a principle which it would be more to our honour to imitate with prudence, than to condemn through malice.

Tho' it is not our deſign to enter into the particulars of the conteſt between our Author and his opponents, it muſt, however, be allowed, that he has, in many inſtances, ſtumbled upon truth, and proved them to have been erroneous in their judgment, incorrect in their language, and indecent in their animadverſions. Yet has he profited ſo little by his diſcovery of *their* imperfections, that he has juſtified the cenſures they have paſſed upon *him*, by expoſing his own want of ſenſe, learning, and decency, in imitating what is moſt faulty in the Writers he condemns. From whence one might conclude, that accident, and not genius, helped him to detect their errors.

We leave it to his Antagoniſts to mortify him, by collecting the many proofs of falſe Grammar, abſurd Sentiments, obſcure Expreſſions, ridiculous Inferences, and nonſenſical Remarks with which this *Occaſional Critic* abounds. It is a taſk only fit for little minds, ſpirited with revenge, to undertake ſuch drudgery: and we think ourſelves the more juſtified in declining this diſagreeable office, as the evidences of his incapacity are ſo obvious, and ſo numerous, that they cannot eſcape the moſt negligent Reader.

But we ſhould, nevertheleſs, think it an inexcuſable omiſſion, did we ſuffer his defence of *The Fourth Letter to the People of England* to paſs unnoticed.

He has endeavoured to ſhew, that his Opponents are unjuſt and injudicious in their cenſure of this performance; and he very wittingly aſks them—'Pray, like your countrymen, the Highlanders, have not you ſhewn your bare *backſides*, in *ſtooping* to become Critics?' Here we will only obſerve, that if *Buckhorſe* was to anſwer this elegant queſtion, he would probably reply, with the ſame true ſpirit of St. Giles's—*Aſk mine a—e.* And, perhaps, ſuch an anſwer might not be altogether unſuitable to ſuch a queſtion.

We intend not, however, to examine into this refined Author's Hypercriticiſm on his Antagoniſts, with regard to the *Fourth Letter, &c.* Whether they are juſtifiable, or not, in their *manner* of cenſuring that performance, it is not our buſineſs to determine: but undoubtedly it merited the ſevereſt reprehenſion *.

In truth, the Writer of that Letter, whoſe manner of addreſſing the people demonſtrates him to be a ſtranger to our Conſtitution, (which he impudently and falſely affects to befriend) ought to be for ever branded as an unworthy intruder into the Republic of Letters, and as a profeſſed enemy to the peace of his country.

An Author who writes upon patriot principles, whilſt he inveighs againſt national abuſes with an independent ſpirit, ought to propoſe national remedies with modeſty and diſcretion. If he has occaſion to arraign the Miniſtry, he will urge his accuſations againſt them, with that weight and dignity which their rank in the ſtate demands, and which becomes the importance of the charge. He will not throw their characters to the vulgar, and make them the ſubject of low ridicule, and buffoonry, in wretched romances, and ſcurrilous inflammatory pamphlets.—Senſible and honeſt himſelf, he will write only to the worthy and the wiſe. He will not ſtoop to harangue the mob; as he knows, that by exciting a popular ſpirit of diſcontent, he is preparing a remedy worſe than the diſeaſe he is endeavouring to cure: and that by attempting to correct the diſorders of the ſtate by ſuch unconſtitutional means, he is only altering the *mode* of its ſubverſion, and making way for the confuſion of *Anarchy.*

But the Writer of the *Fourth Letter to the People of England,* whoſe ſole aim ſeems to have been that of inflaming the populace, appears not only to be utterly void of political capacity; but, were he properly qualified, he ſeems deſtitute of integrity

* Vid. Monthly Review, vol. XV, page 292.

to make a right application of his talents: and this *Occaſional Critic*, who has ſo little regard to his reputation, as openly to profeſs himſelf a friend to ſo illiterate and ſo ſeditious a Scribbler, has, indeed, by that very profeſſion, ſhewn himſelf to be unworthy of any reputable connexion.

The circumſtance on which he ſeems chiefly to rely, in juſtification of this Fourth Letter to the People, is, its being tranſlated into High Dutch, by order of the Empreſs-Queen; and likewiſe into French,—by whoſe order he does not ſay.

But we conceive, theſe tranſlations are ſo far from eſtabliſhing the *merit* of that Letter, that they are rather to be deemed manifeſt proofs of its *demerit*. Indeed, had it been a work of genius, a verſion of it, as ſuch, into foreign languages, would have reflected honour on the Author, and might, at firſt ſight at leaſt, be conſidered as a proof of its excellence.

This, however, was not the caſe with reſpect to the Letter in queſtion: the deſign of which was, to demonſtrate the incapacity and treachery of our Miniſters, by ſtigmatizing them with every kind of frailty, moral and intellectual; and to ſet forth the diſtreſſes of the kingdom by every method of exaggeration which might enkindle ſedition at home, and expoſe us to contempt abroad. No wonder, therefore, if the diſaffected among ourſelves were eager to forward this inflammatory ſcroll, and that our enemies abroad encouraged the publication of it, to inſpirit their ſlaviſh ſubjects, by preſenting them with a deſcription of the calamitous condition of free-born Britons, whoſe wealth and liberty are the conſtant objects of their envy.

Beſides, in thoſe realms of ſlavery, it muſt be a ſufficient matter of admiration to obſerve what the Author of the Fourth Letter, whoſe higheſt honour is that of being born in a Land of Freedom, has *dared to do* in Britain: and they, without doubt, read the works of that wretched Incendiary with the ſame kind of curioſity with which we peruſe the accounts of the diſturbances in the French Parliament: not becauſe we admire the merit of the compoſition, but becauſe we are delighted at the diſſentions among our enemies.

But the Occaſional Critic ſays, that he will take the talents of this Writer from what ſtrangers, who cannot be ſuppoſed to be influenced in his favour, have ſaid of him, and what they have printed; and which, as he ſuſpects his Opponents do not underſtand French, he has tranſlated for them.

'Il paroît un Ecrit imprimé ſous ce titre: LE PEUPLE INSTRUIT; *ou, les Alliances dans leſquelles les Miniſtres de la*

'Grande

' Grande Bretagne *ont engagé la Nation, & l'emploi qu'ils ont* ' *fait de ſes Eſcadres & de ſes Armées, depuis le commencement* ' *des troubles ſur l'*Ohio *juſqu' a la perte de* Minorque, *conſiderez* ' *dans une Quatrieme Lettre au Peuple d'*Angleterre. (Ouvrage ' traduit de l'Anglois) L'Auteur y fait un examen très ſevere ' de la conduite des Miniſtres de S. M. Britannique, & oſe leur ' attribuer tous les malheurs que la guerre préſente a attirez ſur ' la Nation. C'eſt un Citoyen éclairé qui parle avec liberté à ' un Peuple libre *de ce qu'il lui importe le plus de ſçavoir.* Le ' ton qu'il prend n'eſt pas celui des remontrances, mais celui des ' avis & des inſtructions. Sa cenſure ne laiſſe rien échapper. ' Quelquefois abbreuvée du fiel de la ſatyre, mais plus ſouvent ' aſſaiſonnée du ſel de l'ironie, elle eſt toujours redoubtable par ' la ſévérité du jugement, par la ſolidité des réflexions & par la ' vehémence du ſtile. C'eſt l'Orateur d'Athènes qui harangue ' le Peuple d'Angleterre.'

" There has lately appeared a pamphlet with this title: THE " PEOPLE INSTRUCTED; or, *The Conduct of the M—rs in* " *Alliances, Fleets, and Armies, ſince the firſt Differences on the* " Ohio *to the taking of* Minorca *by the* French, *conſidered in a* " *Fourth Letter to the People of* England. In this the Author " examines with ſeverity, the Conduct of the Britiſh Miniſters, " and preſumes to attribute to them all the calamities which the " preſent war hath drawn upon the nation. He is a man of " underſtanding, who ſpeaks with freedom to a free People, " *which he believes little inſtructed in what it is their duty to know.* " The method which he adopts is not that of remonſtrance, " but of advice and inſtruction. Nothing eſcapes his cenſure; " ſometimes it is dipped in the gaul of ſatire, but oftener ſea- " ſoned with irony; yet ſtill formidable by the ſeverity of *its* " judgment, by the ſolidity of *its* reflections, and by the ener- " gy of *its* ſtile. He is Demoſtheneſes delivering his orations " to the people of England.

Now, however unſkilled he may ſuppoſe his antagoniſts, in the French language, the Reader will perceive, from the lines marked in Italicks, that the Occaſional Critic is not deeply verſed either in French or Engliſh, and that he has unfortunately miſconſtrued his friend's pompous panegyric.

The Frenchman ſays, ' C'eſt un Citoyen eclairé qui parle ' avec Liberté à un Peuple libre *de ce qu'il lui importe le plus de* ' *ſçavoir.*' Which this Occaſional Critic tranſlates thus.—" He " is a man of underſtanding, who ſpeaks with freedom to a free " people, *which he believes little inſtructed in what it is their* " *duty to know.*"

Now this by no means appears to be good Engliſh: for we conceive that the Adjective (or, as ſome falſely call it, the Pronoun) *which*, ought to be uſed only when we ſpeak of things, and *who* or *whom* when we talk of Perſons. Neither can we allow this to be a juſt tranſlation of the French, which we venture to render thus—"He is a man of underſtanding, who ſpeaks with freedom to a free people, upon a ſubject which it is of moſt importance for them to be acquainted with."

The Reader will alſo obſerve the impropriety of his uſing and repeating the word *its*; by which he has ingeniouſly made the *Judgment*, the *Reflections*, and the *Stile*, to be derived out of the *Cenſure*; whereas the *Cenſure* is evidently created by them.

But in this very eulogium, the Frenchman ſeems to have diſtantly reproved the audacity of the Writer of the Fourth Letter; for he ſays—"He has made a *very ſevere* enquiry into the conduct of the Britiſh Miniſters, and DARES to attribute to them," &c.—Which the Tranſlator has ſoftened by uſing the word *preſumes*.

There appears, however, to be as little judgment in this Frenchman's Compoſition, as in the work he has ventured to applaud. For, firſt he tells us, that the Author of the Fourth Letter is *very ſevere*; afterwards he places him in the milder light of an *Adviſer and Inſtructor*; and, in the next line, he aſſures us, that his cenſure is ſometimes dipped in *the gaul of ſatire*. Now until he can reconcile theſe contradictions, and ſhew us how the extreme ſeverity of cenſure, dipped in the gaul of ſatire, is ſuitable to the ſtile of advice and inſtruction, no man of common ſenſe will ever be influenced by his opinion, eſpecially of an Engliſh performance.

But as the Writer of the Fourth Letter has often taken occaſion to boaſt of his connections abroad, it is by no means improbable, that he may have penned this nonſenſical panegyric himſelf, and ſent it to ſome foreign hireling to be tranſlated: for one would hardly ſuppoſe, that even a hare-brained Frenchman could compliment him ſo ridiculouſly, as to compare him to "the Athenian Orator delivering his orations to the people of England." Alas! poor man! he is more like a *Demoſthenes of Moorfields* haranguing a holiday crowd, through an iron grate: and, indeed, many are of opinion, that unleſs his friends can keep him from pen and ink, his exuberant ſpleen and folly may, one day, reduce him to this wretched ſtate of declamation.

It is a little unlucky that the *Occaſional Critic* ſhould have laboured ſo unſucceſsfully in vindication of the *Letter Writer to*

the People of England. But, perhaps, it was not ſo much his friendſhip to that Author, as his enmity to his own Antagoniſts, which made him ſo ſtrenuous in the defence of ſo bad a cauſe: and, probably, he thought that the ſeverity of their cenſure, was a ſufficient ground for the zeal of his applauſe. If any thing, however, can increaſe the odium and contempt ſo juſtly conceived againſt the Letter Writer, it muſt be the miſerable juſtification attempted by this congenial Scribbler, who ſtiles himſelf his friend.

As to this Occaſional Critic's conteſt with his Opponents, if we truſt his report of them, we may expect to ſee him matched at his own weapons; for, according to him, *they* are perfect maſters of the *Blackguard ſtile*:—In which, however, from the many ſpecimens he has given, in the courſe of this work, we are inclined to think, no man will diſpute *his* excellence.

If we believe, likewiſe, what his Antagoniſts ſay of him, and what he retorts upon them, they are alike in many other circumſtances. For by their reciprocal defamation, they appear to be Phyſicians without practice; Authors without learning; Men without decency; Gentlemen without manners; and (notwithſtanding he has made ſome lucky diſcoveries of their miſtakes, yet, if their critical merit is no greater than his, the public will, probably, be ready to add) — Critics without judgment.

We cannot forbear lamenting, that Literature ſhould be debaſed by ſuch indecent conteſts. Such mean, envious, and illiberal Competitors, have brought Letters into diſgrace; and have made the name of *Author* ſo diſreputable, that we have ſeen men of genius and merit creep into a Bookſeller's ſhop, with as much caution and ſecrecy, as a married man would ſteal into a brothel.

Men of real learning will diſtinguiſh themſelves from the vulgar by a dignity of thought, an elegance of expreſſion, and propriety of action. They will ſet examples to the crowd, by giving way to no paſſions but what are generous and noble. Revenge, the vice of little minds, will find with them no harbour for its rancour. If they are offended, however they may ſhew their indignation with a warmth becoming Men, they will nevertheleſs preſerve the decorum becoming Scholars: and though they may be ſevere in the matter of their reſentment, yet they will never be groſs in the manner of expreſſing it.

But theſe Pretenders to Literature, theſe invective Altercators, who preſume to enter into literary diſputes, with the genius and phraſeology of Rag-Fair, ought to be whipt through the Re-

public of Letters, and driven among the herd whoſe manners they aſſimilate: for if their ideas are low, their reflections mean, and their language indecent, where is the difference between them and the mob?

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For OCTOBER, 1757.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 1. *Theatrical Records; or, An account of Engliſh Dramatic Authors, and their Works.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. Dodſley.

THIS is merely a chronological liſt of Dramatic Authors, and their productions, from the firſt attempts of that kind in England, to the preſent time: from the religious interludes of the Biſhop of Oſſory, in the ſixteenth century, down to the Apprentice, a farce, by Mr. Murphy.

Art. 2. *Practical Lectures on Education, ſpiritual and temporal; extracted from the moſt eminent Authors on that ſubject, &c. &c. &c. By* J. Girrard, *W. M. &c. in Exeter.* 12mo. 2s. 6d. Exon, printed by Brice, and ſold in London by Baldwin.

Mr. Girrard appears to have been a good ſchool-maſter in his time. The collection he has here made may be uſeful to ſuch parents as are willing to receive hints, and inſtructions, with regard to the management of their children, from a perſon whoſe employment and ſtudies have been turned that way.

Art. 3. *A Compendium of the Corn-Trade. The Practice of Engroſſing, Jobbing, &c. The Cauſe of Plenty and Scarcity; Conſtitutional Errors in our Laws and Cuſtoms; A Summary of the Laws, Aſſize-Table, &c. &c. Compoſed for the conſideration of the members of parliament, magiſtrates, landlords, tenants, &c.* 8vo. 1s. Robinſon.

The ſcope of this pamphlet is intimated in the following words, which is all the account that can be expected from us, who have never been initiated in the craft and myſtery of corn-jobbing.

'As this piece has been wrote ſome time, and very dextrouſly traverſed in the publiſhing, the Reader muſt not be ſurprized, that he finds ſome things happen now, as were pre-ſuppoſed would happen, when the proſpect before us ſeemed to make it highly improbable; he will find, that the whole reaſoning is founded on a ſuppoſition, that the ſcarcity was merely factitious; that there was always corn ſufficient, and that the markets were purely held up by art, and now have only to add, that I hope ſome hints given in the ſubſequent work, will furniſh the Legiſlature with the true means of preventing the like for the future.—

The Author ſeems to know enough of the corn trade to render his obſervations worthy the attention of the public in general, as well as of thoſe who are more peculiarly concerned in the ſubject.

Art. 4.

Art. 4. *Rural Beauties; or, the Natural History of the four following western Counties, viz. Cornwall, Devonshire, Dorsetshire, and Somersetshire. With additional remarks.* By Theophilus Botanista, *M. D.* 12mo. 3 s. Fenner.

Intended for children, and young people in general; being written in the way of question and answer, after the manner of the little compendium of the history of England, extracted from Rapin. It contains nothing sufficiently curious, or uncommon, to recommend it to the notice of *grown* readers: to use a phrase of the ingenious Mr. Hart's, who advertises to teach *Grown Gentlemen* the art and mystery of *Dancing*.

Art. 5. *Tales to kill Time: or, A new Method to cast off Care, and to cure Melancholy, Vapours, and all hypochondriacal Complaints. By the Society of the Court of Momus.* 12mo. 2 s. Baldwin.

We bestow alms upon cripples, to relieve their bodily wants; nor is it less kind to contribute some amusement to those who labour under a poverty of mind, or debility of understanding: that both, being burdens to themselves as well as to society, may be enabled to pass that time as easily as possible, which both may be desirous to *kill*. For this end these poetical tales are calculated, and are a collection purloined from many Authors, as Prior, Swift, Gay, Allan Ramsay, and others, as well as from collections of the same nature with itself.

Art. 6. *The Military History of Great Britain, for* 1756, 1757. *Containing a letter from an English Officer at Canada, taken prisoner at Oswego; exhibiting the cruelty and infidelity of the French, and their savage Indians, in times of peace and war; shewing their superior advantages, and the only means of redress; and impartially delineating the present state of our colonies in America, with some hints for their future regulation. Also a journal of the siege of Oswego, and the articles of capitulation; with a particular table of their inhabitants. Likewise of the loss and retaking of Bengal. A journal of the siege of Fort St. Philip's in Minorca. With a plan of the fortifications of St. Philip's, its environs, &c.* 8vo. 2 s. stitched. Millan.

A collection of different papers, from different quarters; and very improperly entitled an History. However, as the materials have the appearance of authenticity, they may possibly be of use in future compilations: but certainly, the public ought to be told what authority they come from. Anonymous publications, of this kind especially, ever will be, and ought to be, distrusted.

Art. 7. *The Pleasing Instructor; or, Entertaining Moralist. Consisting of select essays, relations, visions, and allegories, collected from the most eminent English Authors. To which are prefixed, New Thoughts on Education. Designed for the use of schools, as well as the closet; with a view to form the rising minds*

of the youth of both ſexes to virtue, and deſtroy in the bud, thoſe vices and frailties, which mankind, and youth in particular, are addicted to. 12mo. 3 s. bound. Hitch.

The Editor's ſole view in this collection, as he acquaints us in his preface, was, to exhibit a *connected plan* of *morality*, for the inſtruction of the youth of both ſexes, free from that incoherent jumble ſo remarkable in all collections of this kind which have hitherto been publiſhed.

All that is neceſſary to be ſaid in regard to it is, that it conſiſts of papers ſelected from the Spectator, Guardian, Tatler, Adventurer, Rambler, World, &c. With fables and pieces of poetry from Pope, Swift, Thomſon, Duck, Parnel, &c. As to the Thoughts upon Education, which are prefixed to it, the Author treats the ſubject very ſuperficially, and ſays nothing that has not been often ſaid before.

Art. 8. *A New Pocket-Book for young Gentlemen and Ladies: or, A Spelling-Dictionary of the Engliſh Language, Wherein the exact orthography, juſt quantities of ſyllables, proper accent, true pronunciation, number of ſyllables contained in each word, the part of ſpeech to which it belongs, and the language from which it is derived, are exhibited at one view. To which is ſubjoined, A Catalogue of the moſt uſual Chriſtian Names of Men and Women. By* James Buchanan, *Maſter of the Boarding-ſchool at Loughbury-houſe, oppoſite Stockwell, in Surry.* 12mo. 2s. Baldwin.

For an idea of Mr. Buchannan and his compilations, ſee our account of his Complete Engliſh Scholar, Review, Vol. VIII p 137; and of his Engliſh Dictionary, with a Latin title, Review for July, 1757, p. 82. As to his preſent performance, to ſay, that it is as well executed, and may prove altogether as uſeful to the public, the author, and his bookſeller, as either of the former, is ſaying enough.

Art. 9. *A Letter to the Reverend Dr. Newcome, Maſter of St* J—n's C——e, *in Cambridge.* 8vo. 6 d. Cooke.

This letter is dated Romney-marſh, July 27, 1757; and ſigned *Robert Neild* It relates merely to the private affairs of the ſaid Mr. Neild; ſo that we cannot gueſs what advantage the Author could propoſe to himſelf, or to the public, by printing it. It is true, we obſerve the ſignificant words *price Six-pence*, at the bottom of the title; but we have not heard, that Mr. Neild has obtained an act of parliament, to compel his Majeſty's liege ſubjects to become purchaſers of a pamphlet in which they are no way concerned, and which can afford them no kind of information, or entertainment.

Art. 10. *A genuine Account of the late* GRAND *Expedition to the Coaſt of France, under the Conduct of the Admirals Hawke, Knowles, and Broderick, General Mordaunt, &c. By a Volunteer in the ſaid Expedition.* 8vo. 1 s. Griffiths.

Our Volunteer acquaints us, that 'he joined the camp on the iſle of Wight, on the 21ſt of Auguſt; that he was perſuaded to engage in the expedition, chiefly from the great idea he had been taught to conceive

ceive of its commanders, and in expectation of that glory, of which young minds are generally ambitious;'—but, after giving a pretty circumstantial, and, we believe, a very honest account of what was, or rather *was not* done, by this grand embarkation, he thus exclaims, at the close of his narrative.—' Henceforth, adieu to all secret expeditions! I will put off my military garb, and retire to the Sabine farm of my forefathers, fully determined neither to converse with a politician, nor to read another news-paper so long as I live.'

As to the matter of this narrative, we have no doubt, that it is the genuine production of an eye-witness to what passed in this fruitless expedition; and with regard to the manner in which it is written, we may easily discern, that it comes from the pen of a gentleman: the language flowing in an easy and lively strain, with nothing of the *fumet* of authorism about it.

POETICAL.

Art. 11. *Melpomene; or, the Regions of Terror and Pity. An Ode.* 4to. 6d. Cooper.

After an invocation of this Queen of the human heart, as our Poet terms her, he finds himself transported in a reverie, or waking vision, first to the region of terror; where he attempts to delineate those spectres of rage, consternation, despair and jealousy, with the retinue of a mangled carcass, and a ghost, which are supposed to have been there first presented to him: but which, in plain prose, he has probably collected from Bedlam and the Theatre. At length tired of, or rather terrified with this scene, where he says,

Emerging spectres dreadful shapes assume,
And gleaming on my sight, add horror to the gloom,

he thus implores the Muse,

Then change thy magic wand,
Thy dreadful troops disband,
And gentler shapes, and softer scenes disclose,
To melt the feeling heart, yet sooth its tendrest woes.

This new scene, of course, is the region of Pity; and notwithstanding many of the representations here are not less tragical than in the former, yet they are generally calculated rather to excite exquisite compassion, than terror, or astonishment. After a review of several images here, a progress of more is prevented by the personal appearance of Melpomene, who, like a very judicious Goddess, assures our Author, that the strongest feeling is not sufficient to accomplish the tragic Poet, without many other requisites, enumerated by her, in the following stanza, and another, which succeeds it in the ode, to which we refer.

But dost thou worship Nature night and morn,
And all due honour to her precepts pay?
Canst thou the lure of affectation scorn,
Pleas'd in the simpler paths of truth to stray?

Hast

Haſt thou the graces fair
Invok'd with ardent prayer?
They muſt attire, as nature muſt impart,
The ſentiment ſublime, the language of the heart.

The Poet, at the end of the next ſtanza, attempting to reply to this awful, graceful perſonage, is prevented by fear, which diſſolves the viſion, and finiſhes the ode: to this brief, though interrupted plan, of which we ſhall add a ſpecimen (from each of his regions) of his deſigning and expreſſion. His picture of deſpair is very ſhort of that famous one by Spencer; but our anonymous Author's purpoſe was to be very conciſe, and to deal rather in ſketches. The following is that of Rage.

Ha! what is he, whoſe fierce indignant eye,
Denouncing vengeance, kindles into flame?
Whoſe boiſt'rous fury blows a ſtorm ſo high,
As with its thunder ſhakes his labouring frame.
What can ſuch rage provoke?
His words their paſſage choak:
His eager ſteps nor time nor truce allow,
And dreadful dangers wait the menace of his brow.

The image of a beautiful maid expiring on the corſe of a brave lover, who has been killed in vindicating her honour, is affectingly picturesque: but we chuſe to exhibit that of a too credulous and injured Beauty, as a reality occurring much oftner, and being pregnant with a neceſſary moral caution.

Can aught ſo deeply ſway the generous mind
To mutual truth, as female truſt in love?
Then what relief ſhall yon fair mourner find,
Scorn'd by the man who ſhould her plaints remove?
By fair, but falſe pretence,
She loſt her innocence;
And that ſweet babe, the fruit of treacherous art,
Claſpt in her arms expires, and breaks the parent's heart.

Theſe will enable the Reader to form a ſufficient judgment of the Writer's poetical vein; which, ſuppoſing him not paſt the age of improvement, ſeems not an unpromiſing one.

Art. 12. *The Rape of the Vineyard*; *or, Mock-Heroic Stanzas on the Mock-Heroic Expedition. Dedicated to the Right Hon. W—— P—t, Eſq*; Folio. 6d. Cooke.

The mob of witlings has been up, ever ſince the miſcarriage of the late expedition; and the *perpetrator* of this *rape* is one of the worſt of the poetical blackguards we have obſerved among them. The ill ſucceſs of our arms is the pretence, but the ill ſtate of affairs in Grub-ſtreet is the real cauſe, of theſe literary diſturbances. Indeed the caſe of the poor inhabitants of that antient, but now neglected and almoſt forſaken ſeat of the Muſes, is to be pitied: the dearneſs of proviſions, and the ſcarcity of money among them, together with the late increaſe of the tax upon paper and print, bears very hard upon theſe diſtreſſed

manufacturers of proſe and verſe, and it is no wonder that, in ſuch a ſituation, they ſhould look ſharp, and eagerly catch at every occaſion that ſeems to promiſe relief:—the bones of an executed Admiral, or a tucked-up General, at ſuch a juncture, muſt afford them admirable picking!

Art. 13. *An Ode on the Expedition. Inſcribed to the Right Hon. W—— P—tt, Eſq;* 4to. 6d. Cooke.

The Author ſneers at Mr. P—tt, as both the planner of the late unfortunate expedition, and the cauſe of its miſcarriage. Our Author ſeems, however, a better Poet than Politician; and yet he is not a good Poet: witneſs the following ſtanza,

Now ſee this terror of the deep;
What thunders in its boſom *ſleep*,
Shells, bombs, and mortars dire!
Its guns, of ſuch prodigious ſize,
With horror rend the frighted ſkies—
If ever they ſhould fire.

What does the Author mean by, *Guns of ſuch prodigious ſize?* and by the laſt line—*If ever they ſhould fire?* It ſeems almoſt as defective in ſenſe, as in poetry.

POLITICAL.

Art. 14. *The Secret Expedition. A Farce, &c.* 8vo. 6d. Scott.

As the Author appears to be ſo illiterate, as to write *juvenal* for *juvenile*, and *effect* for *affect*, we ſhall not trouble our Readers with any farther intimation concerning him.

Art. 15. *The Britiſh Alarmer. An occaſional paper.* 8vo. 6d. Taylor.

This performance contains no other diſcovery than that of the Author's ignorance, with reſpect to the ſubject on which he has choſen to diſplay his talents, viz. The miſcarriage of the late expedition.

Art. 16. *An Appeal to the Nation: being a full and fair vindication of Mr. Mordaunt, and the other Gentlemen employed in the conduct of the late expedition, &c.* 8vo. 1s. Cooke.

The Author, no doubt, intended to paſs this for good irony, and ſmart writing; and we wiſh, for the poor printer's ſake, that we had found it ſo. Whatever this Writer may at preſent think of himſelf, he will probably, one time or other, be convinced, to his great mortification, that humour is not his excellence: he will therefore do well to take advice betimes, and profit of a hint from Perſius, viz. to cultivate his natural talents, if he has any, and

Reſpue quod non es,

Art. 17.

Art. 17. *A Letter to the Officers of the Britiſh Navy.* 8vo. 1s. Griffiths.

Contains little more than general admonition, with regard to good morals, and the cultivation of a patriot ſpirit among the Gentlemen of the navy. The Author particularly addreſſes himſelf to the commanding Officers, in order to impreſs them with a due ſenſe of the great good, or the great miſchief, they may do their country, by a right or a wrong diſcharge of their duty. The whole is expreſſed in a very ſober ſtrain; perhaps too much ſo for the prevailing taſte of the age.

We remember with pleaſure the peruſal of a very pretty pamphlet of this kind, publiſhed ſome months ago, entitled, *A Letter to the Gentlemen of the Army*, ſee Review, Vol. XVI. p. 181. This to the ſea-officers was probably deſigned as a ſupplement to that: but without pretending to any great nicety of diſcernment, we may readily perceive, by the difference of manner, that the two productions are the work of different pens.

Art. 18. *A Letter to the People of England, upon the Militia, Continental Connections, Neutralities, and Secret Expeditions.* 8vo. 1s. Scott.

This mean inſipid production at the opening of the literary campaign, forebodes no good to us Reviewers. The matter, ſuch as it is, is gleaned from coffee-houſe chat, and the common news-papers; and is put together in a bungling manner, and in a wretched ſtile.

The Author profeſſes to treat of the Militia, Continental Connections, Neutralities, and Secret Expeditions; but in the courſe of one and forty tedious pages, through which we have been doomed to drudge, we can find nothing worth notice upon any of thoſe ſubjects.

We imagine the following extract will be ſufficient to juſtify our cenſure.

'Why, inſtead of engaging Ruffians to fight for us, which they never intended, did not we gain the Queen of Hungary, as well as the King of Pruſſia, in our intereſt, if we looked upon ourſelves as obliged to protect Germanic intereſts, or thought continental connections were uſeful to eſtabliſh our American rights? Rights which ſhould have been ſettled ſo early as the year thirteen, at the treaty of Utrecht, when the reſources of all the powers of Europe were exhauſted by a twelve year's war, which was as profuſe of treaſure as of blood: and which ſucceeding other wars, that were diverſified only by faint ſhadows of peace, had brought all the powers, and particularly France (whoſe provinces had fallen a prey, during the whole war, to foreign armies on both ſides) to a ſtate of impotence in arms, and they were no longer able to do miſchief—had we then ſettled the boundaries of our American colonies, and particularly that of Nova Scotia; or had we at the treaty of Aix la Chapelle had prudence enough to have foreſeen the conſequence of referring the limits to the deciſion of commiſſaries at Paris, we ſhould not now be emerged in ſo expenſive and unſucceſsful a war—and which, there is ſome reaſon to fear

fear, will never bring France to that ſtate of reaſon ſhe was in at the treaty of Utrecht, or even at that of Aix-la-Chapelle; but ſuch was our want of diſcernment, that after ſeven years negotiation, the commiſſaries effected nothing; the very countries in diſpute are wreſted from us—we go to war, and ſpend twelve millions to recover them —but inſtead of regaining them, we have already added the loſs of much more important poſſeſſions to them.'

We ſhall diſmiſs this ſimſy politician with a well-meant hint; which, if he is not his own enemy, he will not deſpiſe: viz. That till he *e*merges from the depths of ignorance and ſtupidity, it will not be ſafe for him to *im*merge again in politics.

RELIGIOUS *and* CONTROVERSIAL.

Art. 19. *Miſcellaneous Devotions, in Proſe and Verſe. By a* Convert from Infidelity. 8vo. 6d. Lewis.

'The preface informs us, that theſe Devotions 'are made public, after having been writ above four years, and what now brings them to the eye of the public, is a motive of charity to a family whom the Lord has called to follow him thro' his poverty. The heart of the Author yearning from the Spirit of Chriſt to relieve them, and not being able at the time their need was made known, ſo to do, put theſe private Devotions into the hand of the Father of the family, who is a man of piety, *begging he would conſult the Lord, if it was his will that they ſhould be printed*; determining what profit ſhould ariſe from the ſale of them, ſhould go to cloath his wife and children.'

This, no doubt, was a very good intention, but upon looking into the Devotions themſelves, we found nothing in them worthy the *Divine Imprimatur* the Author was ſo ſollicitous of obtaining; but which *ſhe* (for this is the production of a female pen) does not inform us whether ſhe obtained or not. One thing, however, is clear—the pamphlet *is printed*:—the inference we leave to the Reader; but the conſequence, we doubt, will hardly prove ſo advantageous to the poor family, as the pious Author deſigned. Take the following extracts as a ſpecimen of the work, and of Methodiſt-poetry.

Glorify'd by Jeſu's death,
Heav'nly juſtice ſweet doth prove;
And my Jeſu's dying breath
Sounds of mercy and of love.
When his blood in ſtreams did flow,
Our pure bliſs ſprang from his woe.

From this conqu'ring ſcene of blood
Turn my ſoul to Jeſus riſen,
Nothing has his force withſtood,
See, he's broke his marble priſon.

Then prepare, with notes of love,
The bright Seraphims above,

Thy

Thy Redeemer's praiſe to ſing,
Beat the time each Angel's wing.

The renown that's due to him,
In a ſweet and holy Hymn;
May we ſecond his bleſt pray'r,
And to publiſh it not ſpare.

Accordingly, the Author has publiſhed,—what ſhe had to ſay, or ſing, all in this enthuſiaſtic ſtrain,—in twenty four octavo pages; which thoſe who like the ſample given, may purchaſe for ſix-pence: and we wiſh, for the ſake of the poor family mentioned in the Preface, that the whole impreſſion may be ſold. Nevertheleſs, we hope this charitable Gentlewoman will not think of conveying her benevolence, on any future occaſion, through the ſame channel: for though her views may be perfectly good in the main; yet, it is certain, that ſuch ſubjects as ſhe has here choſen to exerciſe her literary talents upon, can receive no real advantage from her manner of treating them.

Art. 20. *Twenty Sermons on various Subjects, preached in the Cathedral Church of Lichfield. By* Thomas White, *M. A. Prebendary of the ſaid Church.* 8vo. 5s. Longman.

The principal ſubjects here treated by Mr. White, are theſe following—*Sincerity in love; ſuperſtitious and groundleſs fears; our Saviour's temptation; his humility; meekneſs; patience; benevolence, and fortitude; gratitude towards God, and truſt in him; the nature and employment of the holy Angels; prophane and habitual ſwearing; almsgiving; the mutual duties of the rich and poor; and the difference of conduct in temporal and ſpiritual purſuits.* In regard to the merit of the work; we ſhall only ſay, that the Author's ſentiments are common, his diſcourſes plain and practical, his manner eaſy, and his language perſpicuous.

Art. 21. *Hints for religious Converſation with the afflicted in Mind, Body, or Eſtate, and with ſuch others as ſtand in need of ſpiritual Aſſiſtance; eſpecially at the Times when they are confined by Sickneſs. By the Rev. Mr.* Richards, *Curate of All-Saints in Northampton, and formerly of Trinity-College, Oxford.* 12mo. 6d. Rivington and Fletcher.

In the Preface to this little piece we are told, that it was principally wrote for the uſe of ſuch well-diſpoſed perſons as frequently attend on the ſick, or viſit the afflicted in *mind, body, or eſtate*, &c. and would be deſirous of converſing with them religiouſly, if they knew in what manner to do it; but that the Author's chief view in publiſhing it, was, the expectation that ſome abler hand would execute the plan in a more accurate manner, it being highly probable, Mr. Richards thinks, that ſome ſuch method, if well executed, would be more

more likely to benefit mankind, (especially patients in the *public Infirmaries*) than works of a larger bulk, or higher price.

Art. 22. *Twenty Practical Sermons on several important Subjects. By the late Reverend and Learned Mr.* William May. *Published from his own Manuscripts. With a Preface, giving a short Account of his Life and Character.* 8vo. 5s. Johnson.

In the Preface to these Sermons, we are told, that they were neither ordered, nor intended, by their Author for the public view, and that their publication is owing to the repeated warm solicitations of a great number of those that heard them; who earnestly desired an opportunity of reviewing in private some of those instructions, which had given them so much pleasure, and advantage too, when they heard them from the pulpit.

Such is the apology that is made for publishing these Sermons; in regard to which all we shall say is, that they are plain, serious, evangelical discourses, all aiming, as Mr. Hodge observes in his Preface to them, at one and the same grand end; the raising men from *the form* to *the power of godliness*, the promoting *pure religion and undefiled before God even the Father*, and the forming them to, and improving them in, that holiness of heart and life, which is their necessary preparation for the blessedness of immortality.

The principal subjects of them are these following;—*The great business of human life,—the final account,—the worth of the soul,—the sinful fear of man, and remedy against it,—submission to the Divine Will,—the love of novelty in matters of religion,—the peculiar excellence of our Lord's discourses,—the nature and end of the Lord's Supper,—trust in Christ,—the character of the Lord's Disciples,—and the perfect worship of the heavenly world.*

Art. 23. *Remarks on a Pamphlet entitled, The Baptists Vindicated, &c. By* William Eltringham. 8vo. 6d. Fenner.

The Remarker inscribes his work 'To all that truly fear God, and believe in the Eternal Three, one God.' His chief purpose is to maul one Mr. Brine, whose doctrine, he says, makes a plurality of Gods.

QUACKERY.

Art. 24. *An* Exposition *of the Virtues of the* ALL-HEALING MIXTURE, *which powerfully removes, and certainly prevents, in every Stage of Life, the Disorders incident to both Sexes; being an* Improvement *upon a Discovery of* Hippocrates, *the Father of Physic; tho' hitherto unnoticed and unapplied by his Followers.* 8vo. 6d. Robinson.

SERMONS

SERMONS since July.

1. *THE Benefits of a liberal and religious Education*, preached at the Cathedral Church of St. Paul, June 29, 1757, being the anniverſary meeting of the Gentlemen educated at St. Paul's ſchool. By the Rev. Thomas Fairchild, of Chigwell, Eſſex. 6d. Davis.

2. At St. Nicholas's in Newcaſtle, before the Governors of the Infirmary for the counties of Durham, Newcaſtle, and Northumberland, June 23, 1757, being their anniverſary meeting. By Robert Lowth, D. D. Prebendary of Durham. 6d. Millar.

3. On the death of the Rev. Mr. Timothy Jollie, who departed this life Auguſt 3, 1757. Preached to the Church of which he was Paſtor, Auguſt 14, and publiſhed at their requeſt. By David Jennings, D. D. 8vo. 6d. Buckland, &c.

4. Before the Lord-Mayor, Alderman, &c. of London, at St. Lawrence Jewry, Sept. 29, 1757, before the election of a Lord-Mayor for the year enſuing. By James Hallifax, M. A. Vicar of Ewell in Surry, and Chaplain to the Lord-Mayor. 4to. 6d. Rivington.

5. *The Criſis; or, the uncertain Doom of Kingdoms at particular Times*, conſidered, with reference to Great-Britain and her *Colonies*, in their preſent circumſtances,—Preached in *Hanover*, *Virginia*, Oct. 28, 1756, a day appointed by the Synod of New-York, to be obſerved as a general Faſt on account of the preſent War with France. By the Rev. Mr. Samuel Davies, A. M. With a Preface by the Rev. Mr. Thomas Gibbons. 8vo. 6d. Buckland.

6. A *Diſcourſe* relating to the preſent Times, addreſſed to the ſerious conſideration of the public. By Thomas Thompſon, M. A. Vicar of Reculver in Kent, lately a Miſſionary, and ſometime Fellow of Chriſt's College, Cambridge. 8vo. 6d. Oliver.

*** Mr. Thompſon warmly declaims againſt the vices of the times, as the cauſes and fore-runners of our deſtruction; but conceives, however, great hopes of our redemption, from the reigning diſpoſition to charity, which ſo remarkably characteriſes the preſent age.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For NOVEMBER, 1757.

The Elaboratory laid open; or, the Secrets of modern Chemiſtry and Pharmacy revealed. Containing many particulars neceſſary to be known to all practitioners in medicine. 8vo. 5 s. Nourſe.

THE Author of this work acquaints the Reader, in his Preface, with ſome peculiar advantages his ſituation afforded him, for acquiring a thorough knowlege of almoſt all the ſecret practices of thoſe who prepare or vend medicines, and with the motives that induced him to impart his diſcoveries to the Public. He has endeavoured, he tells us, to give a juſt and critical view of the preſent ſtate of the operative Pharmacy, eſpecially as it depends on Chemiſtry: and to ſhew how the common preparation of medicines, particularly thoſe of the retail Chemiſts and Druggiſts, who are moſtly ſupplied by the wholeſale dealers, varies from the regular and genuine preſcriptions.

Hence he obſerves, that all perſons trading either in a more extenſive or confined way, in medicines, being thus appriſed of the arts uſed in preparing them, may regulate their proceedings accordingly; and not lie under a neceſſity of repoſing an implicit confidence in others; of which in general, advantages, not very fair, however cuſtomary, are taken.

His deſign, then, is to expoſe the frauds and impoſitions practiſed in regard to Drugs, and to enable every dealer, or practitioner, in medicine, to guard againſt them; and likewiſe to improve the practical part of Chemiſtry, by inculcating a better,

cheaper, and more expeditious method, of conducting the ſeveral proceſſes. He might have written, he obſerves, a more methodical and comprehenſive treatiſe on this ſubject, had he entered into a more general diſquiſition of every thing relating to it; but as his deſign was to ſupply only what ſeemed hitherto wanting, he reduced his plan to ſuch a form as might beſt avoid the repetition of what has already been frequently ſaid, and confined his view to ſuch particulars only, as are either not to be found elſewhere, or would yet well bear a farther elucidation. This being the ſole object of his purſuit, he contents himſelf with giving up the elegance of the compoſition for the utility of conciſeneſs; and to place the merit of the book rather in the choice of the matter, than the extenſiveneſs of the plan. He ventures to aſſure his Readers, that if this performance does not contain every thing relative, in a general view, to the ſubject, which is to be found in ſome others heretofore publiſhed, it, nevertheleſs, contains ſome very material articles that are not to be found in any.

Our Author divides his book into four parts: the firſt contains an introduction, explaining the general matters previouſly neceſſary to be known, both with reſpect to the operations and ſubject of them, in order to the more ready comprehenſion of the ſubſequent particulars. This introduction conſiſts of three ſections; the firſt of which 'deſcribes ſeveral improved parts of the chemical apparatus, conducing to the more quick and expedite manner of performing many of the proceſſes.'

'The firſt attention neceſſary to the performing, with moſt eaſe and profit, the ſeveral operations of Chemiſtry and Pharmacy, is, the inſtruments employed in them: for, on the perfection of theſe, depend not only the quick diſpatch of the buſineſs undertaken, but alſo conſiderable ſavings in labour, fewel, and frequently the produce of the operation. It is, indeed, to happy inventions reſpecting this point, that great part of the advantage of the preſent practice over the former lies; and that ſome few particular perſons have been able to afford medicines, even though duly prepared, at extreme low prices. So that, without being well informed of the inſtruments, by which compendious proceſſes may be formed, general directions for the conducting them, would in many caſes be of very little avail: and to deſcribe the ſtructure of each of ſuch as ſerve for a variety of purpoſes, or to ſhew the principles of its general utility, on every particular occaſion, would lead into a detail repetition, tediouſly immethodical. I ſhall, therefore, here endeavour to point out all thoſe particulars, relating to the beſt conſtruction and formation of the ſeveral parts of the apparatus, which give any ſuperiority over the common methods; as well ſuch as have been

been practiſed in a ſecret way by others, as thoſe which my own reaſoning and experience have led me to the knowlege of; avoiding at the ſame time as much as poſſible to dwell on any matters, which are commonly known, as my preſent buſineſs is not to teach the whole art of Pharmacy, but only to impart thoſe improvements, that have either been entirely concealed hitherto, or well underſtood only by ſome few.'

He then proceeds to conſider furnaces in general, with the defects of thoſe at preſent in uſe; in the conſtruction of which he remarks four conſiderable errors; namely, the diſpoſing the fire-place in the midſt of the furnace, inſtead of putting it under the center of the object intended to be heated: ſecondly, the want of ſome proper inlet for feeding the fire, without having occaſion always to open the door for that purpoſe: thirdly, with regard to furnaces, particularly thoſe for hartſhorn-pots, or ſand-pots, the carrying the fire round the object to be heated in a vermicular fleu, or worm, as it is commonly called; by which means the force of the fire being exerciſed on that great maſs of brick-work which forms the worm, requires a proportionable quantity to keep the whole in any ſtated degree of heat: fourthly, the bad proportion of the chimnies; which in general are much too large. Each of theſe inconveniences he propoſes to remedy, by improvements equally rational and ingenious.

He next treats of the iron-work neceſſary to be prepared, previouſly to the conſtruction of furnaces in general; then lays down particular directions for the beſt manner of building thoſe for the ſand-pot and ſand-bath; one for the ſublimation of calomel; and another for calcination, commonly called the wind-furnace.

Retorts and receivers, the moſt employed of any glaſs utenſils in the practice of modern pharmacy, come next to be conſidered. Of theſe, he obſerves, the common form is not inconvenient provided two kinds of them be had; the one ſhort and thick, with very long and large necks; and the other taller, with ſhort necks. Then follow ſome remarks on cucurbits, or glaſs bodies for ſublimation; on tritoriums, or ſeparating funnels; on fitters, and on veſſels for the cryſtallization of ſalts. As to theſe laſt, he obſerves, where the cryſtallizing Glauber's, or any other ſalt, is made a particular manufacture, the following will diſpatch very great quantities, with much leſs trouble.

'A leaden boiler muſt be placed over a very gentle furnace; at a due diſtance from this muſt be placed a leaden ciſtern; for the formation of the cryſtals, proper ſized baſkets muſt be provided, to place over this ciſtern, by means of a frame laid croſs it, for receiving the cryſtals when taken out of the ciſtern. A large flat frame of baſket-work, with a rim of the ſame round

the edge, riſing two or three inches to prevent the ſalts from falling off, muſt likewiſe be made for drying the ſalts.'

He treats next of the apparatus for levigating teſtaceous and other hard bodies, where the quantity to be prepared is great; namely, the horſe-mill and roller, which have been applied to this purpoſe, in the ſame manner as it was before by the ſugar-refiners, and manufacturers of ſnuff; and at the ſame time that the machine grinds the materials, it alſo works the ſieves for ſifting the powder. For ſmall quantities, however, the common implements, viz. the mortar, the levigating ſtone and muller, are extremely well adapted. He then proceeds to deſcribe an improved apparatus for the more commodious and advantageous diſtillation of volatile ſpirits from hartſhorn, bones, or any other proper animal ſubſtance, by the uſe of a worm as a refrigeratory: and alſo different alembics, viz. a pewter one for the diſtillation of the volatile ſpirit of *ſal ammoniacum*, and the *ſpiritus volatilis aromaticus*: one for the diſtillation of quickſilver, and another for that of vinegar. Then follows a deſcription of the apparatus for diſtilling oil of turpentine; for the making oil of vitriol from ſulphur; for the diſtillation of *aqua fortis*; of an improved apparatus for making the ſpirit of ſulphur by the bell; and laſtly, of an improved form for a glaſs veſſel, to be uſed for the preparation of the *mercurius calcinatus*, or precipitate *per ſe*.

The limits of our plan not allowing us to expatiate on the ſeveral particulars of this ſection, we ſhall only, therefore, in general, obſerve, that as many of the foregoing improvements appear not the chimæras of a ſpeculatiſt, but the effects of the obſervation and experience of a perſon well verſed in the principles as well as practice of Chemiſtry, we think them highly worthy the attention of every operator in that way.

Our Author cloſes this ſection with an account of various kinds of lutes in uſe, moſt of which, he remarks, rightly applied, would anſwer ſome end; but the art is, rather the adapting each to its proper purpoſe, than the forming the compoſition.

The ſecond ſection of this part contains general obſervations on the moſt eaſy and profitable methods of performing ſeveral of the operations of Chemiſtry and Pharmacy. And firſt of Diſtillation; the chief art of which conſiſts, as he remarks, in the proper choice of the apparatus for each purpoſe, and adapting the ſeveral parts of it rightly to each other. By a due ſkill in, and attention to, theſe, many operations of a precarious nature may be rendered aſſuredly ſucceſsful; and great ſaving, in time, trouble, fuel, and the produce of the operation, may be made in the moſt eaſy and certain manner. Spirit of wine, for inſtance, and all the ſpirituous, compound waters made of it, ſimple waters,

waters, and eſſential or etherial oils, are beſt managed in the copper-ſtill with a worm, by the uſual methods; placing the fire as much as poſſible under the center of the body of the ſtill. The diſtillation of acid ſpirits is beſt performed in retorts, in the ſand-pot; others in the ſand-bath, which varying in the degree of heat in the different parts, retorts containing various ſubſtances may be placed to advantage, in proportion as a greater or leſs degree of heat may be required. In conducting theſe proceſſes, ſome uſeful cautions are likewiſe added. Sublimation, calcination, filtration, levigation, and laſtly, cryſtalization, are ſeparately treated of, and ſeveral uſeful obſervations annexed under each of theſe heads.

The third ſection contains an examination of the ſameneſs of ſeveral ſubſtances which make a part of the Materia Medica, under different denominations, without any eſſential diverſity: being neceſſary to determine how far many ſubſtitutions are allowable. He proves, that all fixed alcaline ſalts, from whatever vegetables, or parts of vegetables, they may be produced, are nearly the ſame; conſequently it may be deemed, at leaſt with regard to the medicinal effects, an allowable ſubſtitution, to uſe the fixed alcaline ſalt of one vegetable for that of another: 'provided there be no impurity or defect, as to the general nature in the ſalt ſo uſed: and it would be much better, in order to avoid impoſitions with reſpect to price, and thoſe other frauds of the ſame kind, with which the preſent practice is greatly replete, that the college would eſtabliſh this doctrine in their Pharmacopeia, and preſcribe only fixed alcaline ſalts in general: leaving it to thoſe to add the burnt oil of wormwood, or any other vegetable, in their extemporaneous preſcriptions, who may think it appoſite to the particular intention of cure.'

He likewiſe, in this ſection, makes it appear, that there is a ſameneſs in the following preparations, namely,

In volatile alcaline ſalts, from whatever animals, or parts of animals, they may be produced.

In oils diſtilled from the ſeveral kinds, or parts of animals.

In the quality of the burnt oils of vegetables, from whatever kind produced.

In calcined earths of all animal and vegetable ſubſtances.

In vinous ſpirits, from whatever materials obtained. In regard to this article, he obſerves, that 'The difference of thoſe kinds of vinous ſpirits, which go under different names, is not in the ſpirit itſelf, but in the admixture of ſome quantity of the eſſential oil of the vegetable, or particular parts of them, which

ariſes in the firſt diſtillation, together with the ſpirit; as in the caſe of rum: and ſometimes alſo in the admixture of the acid of the fruit, which, coming over with it, dulcifies the ſpirit, in the ſame manner as other acids, as in the inſtance of brandy. But the manner of counterfeiting the peculiar qualities of the ſeveral kinds, as well as the deſtruction of them, when natural, by repeated diſtillations, all evince the diverſity not to lie in the ſpirit itſelf.' He further proceeds to ſhew the fameneſs of the acid ſpirit to be obtained, from ſulphur, vitriol, *ſal catharticum amarum* (commonly called Epſom ſalt) and alum: and likewiſe that between vitriolated tartar, *ſal polychreſtum*, *ſal prunellæ*, and the *ſal enixum*.

'All the above mentioned ſalts, therefore, or any other preparation of fixt alkaline ſalt, and the acid of ſulphur, vitriol *ſal catharticum*, or alum, in which a neutral ſalt is formed, may be fairly ſubſtituted for each other. The elements being, in fact, the very ſame: but the *reſiduum* of the nitre and oil of vitriol, in the diſtillation of ſpirit of nitre, which is ſold moſt generally in the ſhops under the name of the vitriolate tartar, muſt be excepted, till it be duly neutralized, for it commonly abounds with a great quantity of redundant acid left behind with it in the retort after diſtillation.'

The ſecond part of this performance treats of the preparation of chemical medicines; with the ſeveral ſubſtitutions and adulterations practiſed in relation to them; as alſo the beſt means of detecting ſuch practices. It is divided into five ſections; the firſt of which is employed on thoſe preparations where ſaline ſubſtances make the whole, or principal part, of the ſubject. Spirit of hartſhorn comes firſt under conſideration. After giving the proceſs as ordered by the College, with ſome remarks upon it, he proceeds to exhibit a method of making ſpirit of hartſhorn fictitious, with reſpect to the materials, but perfect, with regard to the qualities correſpondent to the intention of medicine. This ſpirit, which is diſtilled from bones, whence the oily ſubſtance is previouſly extracted by the people who collect them, is ſuperior to that of hartſhorn, requires much leſs rectification, is more palatable and grateful to the ſtomach, and retains much longer its limpid and colourleſs appearance. It is owing to this preparation, which is what is commonly uſed, that the price of volatile ſpirits is reduced from two or three ſhillings to five or ſix pence per pound. Our Author informs us of a very frequent ſophiſtication of this ſpirit by means of quicklime; and points out a certain method of diſcovering it.

'Mix ſtrong ſpirit of wine with the volatile ſpirit ſuſpected; and, if a chryſtalline powder be produced, let it ſubſide till the fluid

fluid can be poured off; and having put it into a ſpoon, hold it near the fire, or over the flame of a candle: if the powder exhale and diſappear, it may be concluded that the ſpirit is not prepared with lime, but contains a due proportion of volatile ſalt; but if it remain after it has undergone, even, a gentle degree of heat, it may be taken for granted, that not only the uſe of quick-lime, but other eluſive methods have been practiſed.'

From the ſame materials, viz. dry bones, he ſhews how a fictitious volatile ſalt of hartſhorn, rather ſuperior to the genuine, is prepared. As alſo fictitious calcined hartſhorn. The reſt of this ſection is taken up with exhibiting various proceſſes for making volatile ſalt, and ſpirits of *ſal ammoniacum*; the *ſpiritus volatilis aromaticus*, or *ſal volatile oleoſum*. As the pungency of all theſe ſalts and ſpirits is greatly increaſed by an addition of quicklime, but at the ſame time rendered more unfit for internal uſe, he here recommends the experiment before ſpecified, to aſcertain the genuineneſs of the ſpirits of hartſhorn; but as it will not anſwer in the *ſal volatile oleoſum*, he gives us the following,

'Take a ſmall quantity of the volatile *ſal ammoniacum*, powdered, and put it gradually into a phial containing the *ſpiritus volatilis aromaticus* which is to be proved; ſhake them well together: and if the ſpirit, notwithſtanding its great pungency, ſenſibly diſſolve the ſalt, it may be taken for granted, that it was made with lime; but if the ſalt remain entirely undiſſolved, or be diſſolved but in a ſmall degree, the contrary may be, with certainty, concluded.'

The ſecond ſection of this part treats of the preparation of thoſe medicines, where vegetable ſubſtances make the whole, or principal part, of the ſubject. Here he gives the method of preparing a fictitious ſalt of wormwood and tartar; ſhews the ſameneſs between the common ſoluble tartar of the ſhops, and the boaſted *ſal polychreſtum ſolubile*, or *ſelle de ſeignette*, ordered by the faculty of Paris in their Pharmacopeia; gives a proceſs, preferable to the common, for making ſalt of tartar, as alſo the vitriolated tartar from the *caput mortuum* remaining after the diſtillation of *aqua fortis* by Glauber's method: from whence he obſerves, that this moſt valuable medicine, for which hereafter there will probably be a conſiderable demand, may be be made extremely cheap, and perfectly good. The reſt of this ſection contains various proceſſes for the diſtillation of vinegar, oil of turpentine, rectified ſpirit of wine, and alcohol; ſublimation of flowers of benjamin, and the purification or refinement of camphire.

The third ſection treats of the preparation of medicines, where foſſile ſubſtances, not metalline, make the whole, or principal part of the ſubject; here he particularly ſhews the manner of extracting the oil of vitriol from ſulphur; to which improvement we are indebted for the cheapneſs of this valuable commodity. Next follows the proceſs for the dulcified ſpirit of vitriol: this, we beg leave to obſerve, is often ſold for the *liquor anodynus mineralis Hoffmanni*; and, indeed, if the ingredients were pure, and the diſtillation performed with a moderate heat, it would very much reſemble it; but as the oil of vitriol uſed here, is generally what is prepared by Ward, inſtead of the fragrant violet ſmell that ariſes from the mixing genuine acid of vitriol with alcohol, we have the ſtink of the *aqua fortis*, or ſpirit of nitre. The liquor coming over has an empyreuma long before any black froth can be perceived: it is better therefore to have a ſmall hole on the upper ſide of the receiver, (which is to be ſtopt with a bit of lute during the diſtillation) thro' which the operator may frequently ſmell what comes over. If the heat is not too great, the receiver may be changed as often as any empyreuma is ſuſpected. The hole in the receiver anſwers better than luting with bladder, and piercing the bladder with a pin, as is directed in the Harlem Diſpenſatory. If there is any ſign of acid, the heat has been too great, or the diſtillation too long continued. The oil of vitriol commonly ſold is of a dark colour: but when properly concentrated, it is as clear as rock water; yet if expoſed to the air, it ſoon imbibes both water and nitre, and becomes dark again.

From Page 184 to 191, our Author gives the various ways of producing a compound neutral ſalt from the acid of vitriol mixed with the alcaline of ſea ſalt; and is extremely accurate in his deſcriptions. With regard, however, to the medicinal virtues, it is certain that, in moſt caſes, the Epſom ſalts are preferable to Glauber's, and the plain ſea water to either of them. But one thing we beg leave to remark, namely, that we have here no other ſpirit of ſea ſalt than what is obtained in making the Glauber ſalts, which contains a great portion of the vitriolic acid, and is thereby rendered unfit for many purpoſes; we would therefore earneſtly recommend to the Chemiſts, to prepare the *ſpiritus ſalis cum bolo*, which is an excellent, and deſervedly eſteemed, medicine.

Page 192, he gives the method of making the fictitious *magneſia alba*. We ſhall add, that when the water is pretty well ſtrained off, ſome fine pounded ſugar is mixed with the powder; and thus is formed what is called the Worm Cake for children. This we have ſeen the good women here adminiſter, ſo as to keep

keep the belly open for ſeveral days ſucceſſively, and with good effects. He next gives the methods of preparing *lac* and *ſal ſulphuris*, with the ſalt and oil of amber; and ſhews the manner of diſcovering their ſeveral ſophiſtications.

The fourth ſection of this part contains the proceſſes for preparing thoſe medicines where metalline ſubſtances make the whole, or principal part, of the ſubject. Here all the different preparations of mercury are conſidered.—As *mercurius dulcis*, or calomel, is, of all theſe preparations, the moſt frequently preſcribed as an internal medicine, and is, at the ſame time, liable to be adulterated in the moſt villainous manner, we ſhall inſert what our Author ſays on this head; recommending likewiſe to the attention of every Practitioner, or Dealer in medicines, his trials for diſcovering a ſophiſtication productive of ſuch fatal conſequences to the health and lives of mankind.

It has been too uſual to adulterate calomel, as well as ſublimate, with the poiſonous ingredient before mentioned; and I have ſeen a *recipe*, (given by a German empyric, who has for ſome few years infeſted this country, and pretends to knowlege in almoſt every branch of chemiſtry,) which directed this ingredient to be uſed in a very large proportion, which, if it happened to be joined to Venetian ſublimate, that ſhould contain, likewiſe, a large proportion of the ſame ſubſtance, as is frequently the caſe, a poiſon, that ſcarcely the ſtrongeſt conſtitution could reſiſt, muſt have neceſſarily been produced. The preparers of medicines for the Weſt-India trade, have, likewiſe, adopted this execrable practice; and, on enquiry, for what purpoſe the matter of this adulteration was preparing, in a large quantity, the uſe of it, for this end, has been freely avowed; with the apology, that the calomel would be adminiſtered only to Negroes. In order, therefore, to prevent ſuch dangerous preparations being impoſed on thoſe who are duly careful, and that they may not be liable to give, perhaps, a ſcruple of ſuch calomel as I have ſeen kill a dog, in the quantity of three grains only, though fetched from the ſhop of a very great dealer in medicines, I will give an infallible method of detecting this pernicious fraud; as the means before directed, to be uſed for this purpoſe, with reſpect to ſublimate, are not practicable in the caſe of calomel, as it is not capable of being diſſolved in water.

'*Method of detecting the Adulteration of Calomel.*

'Take a ſmall quantity of the ſuſpected calomel; powder it with about a third of its weight of flowers of ſul[illegible]r: put the mixture into a crucible, over which a leſſer is to be inverted as a co-

a cover: place the crucible in a common fire, that it may have a heat ſufficient to raiſe the ſulphur in fumes. If the calomel be adulterated, as ſuſpected, a very offenſive allianceous ſmell, like that of orpiment, will be perceived: but if none ſuch be found to be produced, it may be taken for granted, that it is free from the mixture of the pernicious ingredient, uſed for its ſophiſtication. This adulteration may be alſo perceived, but with leſs certainty, by dipping a piece of the calomel, unground, into a ſolution of fixt alkaline ſalts; which, if it be ſophiſticate, will turn it black; but, if not, to an orange colour.'

Page 258, he proceeds to conſider the ſeveral preparations of antimony. Among theſe he preſents us, page 225, with the famous fever-powder of Dr. J——; but we muſt beg leave to remark, that the medicine, as here prepared, is a mere calx of antimony, diveſted, by ablution, of its only active parts; and conſequently, is good for nothing. As to the admixture of red precipitate, it is, indeed, pretty certain, that the Doctor uſed a ſmall proportion of it for ſome time; but this practice, we have reaſon to believe, he has delined ever ſince ſome people happened to be ſalivated by it. The chief intention, in this proceſs, conſiſts in diveſting the antimony of its ſulphur, by mixing it with ſome animal ſubſtance, to prevent its running into glaſs during the calcination. We ſhall here inſert, what is ſaid upon good authority to be, the beſt method of preparing this celebrated powder.

Take of powdered antimony any quantity; put it into an open glazed earthen veſſel; keep it continually ſtirring with a ſpatula over a gentle heat, adding, by degrees, a ſmall quantity of fat or tallow: thus proceed till it is reduced to a calx. Then take of this calx, and nitre, in fine powder, equal quantities; rub and mix them well together. Throw this powder gradually into a large red-hot crucible: when the detonation is over, take out the gray-coloured powder, and keep it, ſtopped in a bottle, for uſe; which is better than the Doctor's double papers ſealed. If you have a mind to render it uſeleſs, let it be edulcorated with water. It may be given from one ſcruple to half a drachm; tho' we find it ſucceeds beſt in ſmall doſes frequently repeated.

Page 280, our Author gives us the manner of preparing the *Æthiops antimonialis*, a ſecret by which, at one time, the greateſt wonders in medicine were pretended to be done. But to this notion, however, of its extraordinary efficacy, he ſeems to pay little regard: tho', nevertheleſs, from experience we can affirm, that we have ſeen the exhibition of this medicine, when joined with a ſmall proportion of camphire, as an alterative, attended with ſurprizing good effects.

Page 297, to 301, our Author gives us two proceſſes for preparing the flowers of Biſmuth: but neither of theſe yield the

the genuine flowers, for procuring which, no admixture is neceſſary. This preparation being deſervedly in high eſteem, as a coſmetic, we ſhall give the beſt manner of obtaining it. Fill a large ſtrong crucible half full with biſmuth; place it on a pretty ſtrong fire till the biſmuth melts; then ſtir it, when it has been kept a conſiderable time in fuſion, with an iron rod, and fumes will immediately ariſe, which are the flowers. Different means have been tried for collecting them; ſome hold a large inverted iron ladle over the biſmuth; but as the flowers ariſe only while the crucible is ſtirred, by this method too large a portion is ſuffered to eſcape.

The following, however, will compleatly anſwer the purpoſe. Place on a charcoal fire, in an iron furnace, an Hungary pot, with a hole in the lower part of its neck; through this hole let an iron rod be introduced; then let a large glaſs receiver, ſuſpended by wires to an hook placed over the furnace, be fitted to the neck of the pot, covering it ſo low down as the above-mentioned hole: when the metal has been ſome time in fuſion, keep ſtirring with the iron rod, and the flowers will riſe very faſt, and for a conſiderable while, into the receiver, which may, if occaſion requires, be very eaſily ſhifted.

The fifth and laſt ſection of this part exhibits a view of diſtilled waters and ſpirits, either not generally known, or to be made by cheaper and more compendious methods than are directed in the regular preſcriptions for them, particularly cinnamon and lavender-waters, ſimple and compound; Hungary-water, *aqua mirabilis*, King's honey-water, Anhalt-water, *eau de carmes*, or *aqua meliſſa compoſita*, *eau d'arquebaſſade*, or vulnerary water; and laſtly, a very modern, and faſhionable compoſition, namely, *eau de luce*. As any means of preparing medicines cheaply and expeditiouſly, without impairing their virtues, are certainly to be deemed improvements, moſt of the articles in this ſection are entitled to that denomination.

The third part contains an account of Galenical Preparations, where deviations are uſually made from the preſcriptions of the College, or where ſophiſtications are frequently practiſed. We think the method of compounding the *confectio cardiaca* ſuperior to that of the College, where the too large quantity of fluid, unable to ſuſpend the other ingredients, occaſions a ſeparation, which renders it difficult to proportion the doſe, as well as a loſs to the Preparers, by a fermentation of the thinner parts. As to the original Gaſcoigne's powder, and Gea-ſtone, it may be doubted whether they ever were genuinely prepared—but where people are obſtinately attached to names, our Author's ſubſtitutions are, doubtleſs, very proper. In regard to the ſyrup of maidenhair, we are ſurprized that a perſon who ſeems to be ſo well acquainted with drugs

drugs in general, ſhould recommend a leſs quantity of the herb, to render the ſyrup leſs bitter and unpalatable. If there is a perfectly taſteleſs ſimple in the Materia Medica, it is, perhaps, Maidenhair.

We now come to the fourth and laſt part of this work, which treats of the ſubſtitutions, and adulterations, commonly practiſed with regard to ſimples; and the proper methods of detecting them in each inſtance. As ſimples, however, do not, like chemical preparations, admit of any great variety of methods of ſophiſtication, and are pretty eaſily diſcovered when they are ſo, this part of the work is not of equal importance with the others. As, of all the adulterations he mentions, that of quickſilver ſeems to be of the greateſt conſequence, we ſhall give what he ſays on this head in his own words.

'Quickſilver, though of at leaſt equal importance with any other medicinal ſimple, is, perhaps, more frequently adulterated than any other: and, by that means, rendered greatly unfit for thoſe preparations, where it does not undergo a ſublimation; as in the ſeveral precipitates, æthiops mineral, and alcaliſate mercury.

'The adulteration is made by amalgamating lead or tin with the quickſilver; which metals it readily diſſolves, and apparently aſſimilates with itſelf.

'As this adulteration, particularly with lead, ought to be carefully guarded againſt, where quickſilver is uſed for the above-mentioned purpoſes, it ought always to be proved by a proper teſt.

'The eaſieſt means of doing this, where the adulteration is great, is by ſtraining it through leather; in which, if it contain beyond a certain proportion of lead or tin, a paſty metallic matter will be left; being an amalgama of the two metals: but, if the adulteration be ſmall, this proof will not diſcover it; and the following method ſhould be uſed.

'Put any quantity of the quickſilver ſuſpected into a crucible, and give it ſuch a heat as will diſſipate it in fumes: after which the tin or lead, if there be any, will be left in the crucible; and being examined, and weighed, not only the nature, but the proportionate quantity of the adulterating matter in the quickſilver, may be with certainty known: ſo that the quickſilver may be either purified for the uſes which require it, according to the means directed page 208; or applied to the purpoſes where purity is not eſſential; proper allowance being made for the defect in quantity of the real quickſilver, proportionably to the weight cauſed by this adulteration.'

We

We have now gone through this volume with an exactneſs that may not, perhaps, be agreeable to the bulk of our Readers, who are, probably, unacquainted with matters of this kind; but we hope the importance of a ſubject that ſo nearly concerns the health of all, and the intereſt of many, will be admitted as a ſufficient apology:—and we ſhall venture to conclude, with recommending this book to the public, as an uſeful and ingenious performance.

The Day of Judgment, a Poetical Eſſay. 4to. 1s. Whiſton, &c.

THIS poetical Eſſay, to which the annual prize deviſed by Mr. Seaton* has been aſſigned by the Vice-Chancellor of the Univerſity of Cambridge, and the Maſter of Clare-Hall, appears, by their aſſignment, to be the Production of Richard Glynn, M.D. It is wrote in blank verſe; and tho' the Author, in his *Exordium*, modeſtly diſclaims any poetical power, many parts of the ſequel, and, indeed, the Poem taken altogether, will diſpoſe his Readers to diſſent agreeably from his ſelf-diffidence. The *cui bono*, or good purpoſe of it, he profeſſes to be

> ——— ——— That Virtue ſtill
> May hope her promis'd crown; that Vice may dread
> Vengeance, tho' late; that reaſ'ning Pride may own,
> Juſt, tho' unſearchable, the ways of Heaven.

As it was neceſſary to premiſe and eſtabliſh the Immortality of the Soul, on which the very exiſtence of his ſubject depends; after challenging the Sceptic to account for the univerſal expectation of a future judgment, in all times and places, he demands why every individual contains an inward monitor and encourager? and emphatically ſubjoins,

> Tell why on *unknown* evil grief attends,
> Or joy on *ſecret* good?———

In which caſes the fear or hope of any ſublunary puniſhment, or reward, may be conſidered as truly abſtracted from the evil or good action.

The Poet inſiſts next on the unequal diſtribution of happineſs and miſery in the preſent ſtate, which ſhould ſeem inequitable, from a greater proportion of the former being viſibly enjoyed by

* See Review, vol. IV.

the

the wicked, and a greater of the latter being endured by the good. This conſideration ſeemed for a while to ſtagger the ſacred and royal poet himſelf; and, until the fall of Rufinus, was a great ſtumbling block to the Poet Claudian. It has been ſince conſidered as a ſtrong argument for a future ſtate, by many of the logical and moral Writers: and the contraſt reſulting from ſuch an inequality here, is beautifully imagined and expreſſed by our Author, in the following lines.

Beneath the ſhade of cold obſcurity
Pale Virtue lies; no arm ſupports her head;
No friendly voice ſpeaks comfort to her ſoul;
Nor ſoft-ey'd Pity drops a melting tear:
But, in their ſtead, Contempt and rude Diſdain
Inſult the baniſh'd Wanderer: on ſhe goes,
Neglected and forlorn: diſeaſe, and cold,
And famine, worſt of ills, her ſteps attend.——

Now turn your eyes to yon ſweet-ſmelling bow'r;
Where, flush'd with all the inſolence of wealth,
Sits pamper'd Vice! for him the Arabian gale
Breaths forth delicious odours; Gallia's hills
For him pour nectar from the purple vine.
Nor think, for theſe he pays the tribute due
To Heav'n: of Heav'n he never names the Name;
Save when with imprecations, dark and dire,
He points his jeſt obſcene. Yet, buxom Health
Sits on his roſy cheek; yet Honour gilds
His high exploits; and downy-pinion'd Sleep
Sheds a ſoft opiate o'er his peaceful couch.

Dr. Glynn having then aſſumed that future account and retribution, which no tolerably good, and duly humble, man will conteſt,—obſerves a circumſtance that will happen on the Day of Judgment, which would greatly entertain our curioſity, could we be ſuppoſed diſintereſted ſpectators of it.

——————— ——— At once ſhall riſe
Whom diſtant ages to each other's ſight
Had long deny'd———

In his arranging the wicked on the left hand of the Judge, he begins with allowing precedence to 'the mighty murth'rers 'of mankind;' and mentions, immediately after the Atheiſts, or worſhippers of Chance, as the laſt, tho' not the leaſt criminal,

The vile Blaſphemer; he, whoſe impious wit
Profan'd the ſacred myſteries of faith,
And 'gainſt th' impenetrable walls of heav'n
Planted his feeble battery———

In

In diſpoſing of the Good on the right hand, after having properly aſſigned the firſt rank to the greateſt and braveſt ſufferers, the Martyrs, he gratefully introduces, in the ſecond, his poſthumous Patron, whoſe pious and judicious endeavours to unite Religion and Genius, and to reſtore Poetry to its original deſtination, cannot be too much approved.

> Here are they plac'd, whoſe kind munificence
> Made heav'n-born Science raiſe her drooping head;
> And on the labours of a future race
> Entail'd their juſt reward.———Thou, amongſt theſe,
> Good SEATON, whoſe well-judg'd benevolence,
> Foſt'ring fair Genius, bad the Poet's hand
> Bring annual off'rings to his Maker's ſhrine,
> Shalt find the generous care was not in vain.

Next to this charity for the immortal part of man, our elegant religious Poet places that, which, from its relieving the temporal wants of the unhappy and deſtitute, implies the poſſeſſion of wealth or influence, not omitting that mode of it which even the deſtitute may poſſeſs and exerciſe, as it conſiſts in the meek and habitual aſpirations of univerſal amity and benevolence. Nor is Mr. Glynn's deſcription of this moſt amiable virtue the leſs juſt or affecting, from its being, in a great meaſure, a verſion of part of the parable of the ten Virgins in St. Matthew, and of a paſſage in one of St. Paul's Epiſtles. Whether the Poet intended, by this part of his ſhort Apoſtrophe to Charity

> *When* this great day is come, Thou by the throne
> Shalt ſit triumphant———

to intimate the ſupreme charity or love of GOD to man, by the incarnation and ſufferings of CHRIST, he can beſt determine.

The immediate ſequel is employed in ſome apt diſquiſitions on the cauſe, and ſenſible effects, of the Conflagration; throughout which the expreſſion is, very generally, poetical and animated. But the concluſion, in being ſolemn and deprecatory, is the apteſt that could have been deviſ'd for the ſubject. The Poet, after mentioning the incertain period of this awful Era, or rather expiration of ſublunary time, has made it ſo perſonally intereſting to himſelf, that every ſenſible Reader muſt catch the Pathos, and apply it directly at home, with the alteration of only a word or two in the following verſes.

> ———— Perhaps, as here I ſit,
> And rudely carrol theſe incondite lays,
> Soon ſhall the hand be check'd, and dumb the mouth
> That liſps the fault'ring ſtrain.—O! may it ne'er
> Intrude unwelcome on an ill-ſpent hour,

But

But find me wrapt in meditations high,
Hymning my great Creator!

" Power Supreme
" O everlasting King! to thee I kneel;
To thee I lift my voice. With fervent heat
Melt all ye elements! And thou, high heav'n,
Shrink, like a shrivell'd scroll!—But think, O Lord,
Think on the best, the noblest of thy works;
Think on thine own bright image! Think on Him,
Who dy'd to save us from thy righteous wrath;
And in the wreck of worlds remember Man!"

The Day of Judgment, a Poem. By Mr. Bally. *Written for Mr. Seaton's prize, but* REJECTED. 4to. 1 s. Cooper.

A Particular expression in the title-page of this performance, must naturally remind its readers of the passage in Mr. Pope's epistle to Dr. Arbuthnot, where the former advises a bard, whose play had been refused at the theatres, to

——————————Print it,
And shame the rogues.——————

And, indeed, if Mr. Bally's purpose, in submitting his production to the sentiments of the public, was only to demonstrate, that it was not contemptible, though not preferred, it will probably be gratified; his poem not being without merit, as it contains many just sentiments, and some affecting images, cloathed in good poetical expression, upon the whole; though perhaps over-laboured in a few instances. But if he designed, by printing REJECTED rather in emphatical Roman characters, than in a black type [which might have been interpreted into a decent acquiescence in the judgment of his censors] to insinuate a reflection on his judges, and to avow his own conscious advantage over his competitor, we apprehend his success will be only partial, and rather limitted to the circle of his friends, than established on the mature suffrage of the public. To give a few such reasons for this suggestion, as occur to our slight researches on the present occasion,—Mr. Bally's title is professedly a Poem; Dr. Glynn's, a Poetical Essay. Mr. Bally, in his exordium, which is not void of dignity and spirit, seems to exult in a conscious inspiration, which he soon after invokes, calling his muse the Sibyl of the Holy Spirit.

That so the visionary maid, enlarg'd
Her tone and feature, may with awful sound

Utter

Utter immortal myſteries, may ſing
The glories of thy kingdom.—

This is not amiſs; and the likeneſs to the agitated Sybil of Virgil is even pleaſing: but, upon the whole, there ſeems ſome room here (and elſewhere) for the application of Horace's—*profeſſus grandia turget.* There is more of the *Cantabo Priami fatum, &c.* than of the *Dic mihi muſa virum, &c.* On the other hand, Dr. Glynn, having propoſed his ſubject, ſeems aſtoniſhed at its grandeur and importance; and terrified with his great inequality to a theme, on which he profeſſes an effort only, in the following lines.

Yet will I *ſtrive* to ſing, albeit unus'd
To tread poetic ſoil.—What though the wiles
Of fancy me enchanted ne'er could lure
To rove her fairy lands; to ſwim the ſtreams
That through her vallies weave their mazy way;
Or climb her mountain-tops; yet will I raiſe
My *feeble voice*, to tell what harmony
Attunes the moral world.—

Now though we readily admit Horace to boaſt of erecting an eternal monument to himſelf, in which he has hitherto been no falſe prophet; yet it is certain, that amongſt our cotemporary bards, he who aſſumes too little is more generally agreeable to his readers, and his critics, than another who profeſſes and arrogates too much. The reaſon of this may be, that the latter hurts that pride and ſelf-love of each individual, which the ſubmiſſiveneſs of the former rather gratifies; as he appears with ſufficient addreſs, to receive that approbation as a grace or favour, which the other challenges as a right.

As Mr. Bally's performance contains about 250 lines more than Dr. Glynn's, the former has neceſſarily more luxuriance and imagery; but the conciſeneſs of the latter may not improbably infer, that he has exerciſed his judgment more in retrenching what Horace very juſtly calls the *ambitioſa ornamenta*, the leſs pertinent decorations of his work. Our Waller, perhaps, deſigns the ſame advice, in praiſing poets for *blotting diſcreetly.* Dr. Glynn's apoſtrophe to the * beatified ſpirit of Mr. Seaton, was entirely proper and appoſite. Mr. Bally's prediction of himſelf being only ſecond in this conteſt, [if that has not been added ſince the award] is expreſſed with much elegance, and enriched with the truly wiſe preference of a celeſtial wreath, in theſe verſes.

Reckleſs, though man condemn her frigid ſtrain,
If heav'n her modulated life applaud,

* *See the immediatly preceding article.*

The better ſong! and in that ſolemn day,
Which trembling now ſhe meditates to ſing,
Deign to beſtow the bright unwith'ring wreath.

Mr. Bally attempts, after the ſcriptural ſentence of the damn'd, to deſcribe their puniſhment briefly thus—

——————— Oh! what plaints,
What yells reſound, while rolling in the ſurge
Sulphureous, kindled by the Almighty's breath,
Th'eternal tophet, myriads howl and wiſh
They in the gen'ral wreck could loſe their being!

This attempt Dr. Glynn declines, with addreſs and elegance, in the following ſuppreſſion, or ἀποσιωπησις, as the Greeks term it.

——————— Vain wiſh! the Judge
Pronounces doom eternal on their heads,
Perpetual puniſhment. Seek not to know
What puniſhment! for that th' Almighty will
Has hid from mortal eyes.

Mr. Bally, on this occaſion, ſeems acted by more fancy, Mr. Glynn by more thought, and at leaſt equal reverence. Yet not to leſſen the idea of that torment repreſented in ſcripture by fire and the never-dying worm, he immediately ſubjoins it.

But, to catch a hint from this eligible circumſtance of ſuppreſſing now and then, we forbear a further ſcrutiny into the contending merit of theſe gentlemen; and having ſaid enough to diſcover our own opinion, we leave our Readers to theirs. On this occaſion, however, we would obſerve to our preſent Author, that whatever compliments are paid to his Rival, may be conſtrued into an acknowlegement, that there needed conſiderable excellence to excell him. Neither does it follow, from the preference awarded by the very learned Vice-chancellor, and the Maſter of Clare-hall, to Dr. Glynn's poem, that they conſidered Mr. Bally's as not really commendable, ſince the contrary ſeems more probable. But, as juſt cenſors and aſſignees, they were obliged to award the premium, not to what they thought a good, or a very good, but the beſt performance. And it muſt be confeſſed, their decretorial power on this occaſion is ſo circumſtanced, that few will envy it: ſince they can content but one of the poets, and may find themſelves, from good nature, reduced to expedients for mollifying the reſt; which ſeems to have been ſometimes the ſituation of a moſt excellent and elegant judge of poetry, who has ſaid,

Multa ferò ut placem genus irritabile vatum.

A Sup-

A Supplement to the First Book of the Second Part of the Credibility of the Gospel-History. Vol. III. *Containing a History of St. James, St. Peter, and St. Jude, with the Evidences of the Genuineness of the seven Catholic Epistles, and the Revelation, the Times when they were writ, and Remarks upon them. By* N. Lardner, *D. D.* 8vo. 5 s. Noon, Waugh, &c.

WE have already given an account of the first two volumes of this Supplement *.

The fifteenth chapter, which is the first in this volume, is a kind of introduction to the seven catholic epistles; shewing, in general, how far they were received in several ages, their order, and the reason of that denomination.

In the sixteenth chapter is a history of St. James, the Lord's brother; whom the Author shews to have been one of Christ's twelve Apostles, and the same as James the son of Alpheus. He considers the several accounts of his death in Josephus and Hegesippus; and concludes, that he suffered martyrdom from the Jews in a tumult, which began at the Temple about the time of passover, in the year of Christ 62.

The seventeenth chapter represents the evidences of the genuineness of the epistle ascribed to St. James, the time when it was writ, and to whom. Our Author supposes it to have been writ in the year 61, or the beginning of 62, not long before his martyrdom. Concerning the person to whom it was sent, he says; 'To me it seems, that this epistle was writ to all Jews descendants of Jacob, of every denomination throughout the world, in Judea, and out of it; for such is the inscription, *James, a servant of God, and of the Lord Jesus Christ, to the twelve tribes, which are scattered abroad, greeting.* No expression can be more general than the *twelve tribes.* There is not any limitation, restraining it to Christians, or believers in Jesus: nor does he wish them grace and peace from Jesus Christ. It is only a general salutation. He does not dissemble his own character. He calls himself *a servant of God, and of the Lord Jesus Christ.* He takes upon him the character of a Christian, and, perhaps, of an Apostle: but he does not so characterize those to whom he writes, nor is there any Christian benediction at the end of the epistle. In that address there is great dignity. It well became the Apostle of Christ, residing at Jerusalem, and superintending all the churches of Judea, to send, at this season, a warning and admonition to all Jews in general, believers and unbelievers.'

* See Review, Aug. 1756, p. 146, and June 1757, p. 536.

In the eighteenth chapter, we have a very ample hiſtory of St. Peter, both before and after our Saviour's aſcenſion. The Author inſiſts particularly upon the article of the converſion of Cornelius, the Centurion, at Ceſarea, which is ſuppoſed to have happened in the year 40, or 41. To him the Apoſtle Peter was ſent by Divine appointment; and now the goſpel was firſt preached to Gentiles, or men who were not circumciſed. Cornelius is called *a devout man, and one who feared God with all his houſe*, Acts x. 2. whereby many, eſpecially in late times, have ſuppoſed to be meant, that Cornelius was one of thoſe who are called *proſelytes of the gate*. But the Doctor ſays, that what is there ſaid of Cornelius, is only his perſonal character, denoting, that he was a truly good man: and that thoſe expreſſions repreſent not any religious diſtinction, or denomination. He moreover aſſerts, that there never was among the Jews any more than one ſort of proſelytes. Theſe were all circumciſed. In the Old Teſtament, they are called *ſtrangers*, or *proſelytes within their gates*, and *ſojourners*; but for our Author's argument, in behalf of this opinion, in which he differs from ſo many learned moderns, we muſt refer to the work itſelf. Farther, he is of opinion, that St. Peter did not come to Rome till the year 63, or 64; and that he was there crowned with martyrdom, in the time of Nero's cruel perſecution of the followers of Jeſus. Some learned men have denied that Peter ever was at Rome; which has given occaſion to the Author to put down, near the end of this chapter, a large collection of the paſſages of antient writers, who ſpeak of Peter's ſuffering martyrdom at Rome, about the ſame time with the Apoſtle Paul. Whereupon he proceeds,—'It is not needful to make many remarks upon this tradition: it is eaſy to obſerve, that it is the general, uncontradicted, diſintereſted teſtimony of antient Writers in the ſeveral parts of the world, Greeks, Latins, Syrians. Never any other place was named beſide Rome. Nor did any other city ever glory in the martyrdom of Peter. It is not for our honour, nor for our intereſt, either as Chriſtians or Proteſtants, to deny the truth of events, aſcertained by early and well-atteſted tradition. The two traditions concerning St. Peter's being at Rome, St. Paul's preaching in Spain, ought not to be compared together. They are not at all alike. The latter is not atteſted by ſo many, nor ſo early writers; and is, probably, a mere conjecture, founded upon the words of Rom. xv. 28. which are no proof at all.'

In the nineteenth chapter is ſhewn, from teſtimony, and internal characters, the genuineneſs of the ſecond, as well as of the firſt epiſtle, of St. Peter. The firſt epiſtle is dated at Babylon, which our Author, with many others, underſtands figuratively, and ſuppoſes that thereby was meant Rome: where he thinks both

both the epistles of this Apostle to have been writ, a short time before his martyrdom, in the year 63, or 64, or, at the farthest, in 65.

The three following chapters are entitled, *The three Epistles of St. John, St. Jude and his Epistle, The Revelation of St. John*; where the same method is pursued, as in the chapters before mentioned.

The twenty-third chapter concerns the order of the books of the New Testament.

The twenty-fourth is entitled after this manner. *That the books of the New Testament, consisting of a collection of sacred writings, in two parts, one called Gospel, or Gospels, or Evangelicon, the other Epistles, or Apostle, or Apostolicon, were early known, read, and made use of by Christians.* Where are particularly considered, some well-known observations of the learned Mr. Dodwell, concerning the late forming the canon of the New Testament.

The title of the last chapter is to this purpose, *The Question considered, Whether any sacred books of the New Testament have been lost?* And the negative is taken.

At the end we have a list of texts explained, and an alphabetical table of the principal matters in the three volumes of the plement.

At the beginning are a table of the seven Catholic Epistles, and the Revelation, with the places where, and the times when, they were writ; and corrections, alterations, and additions in the first and second volumes of the Supplement.

We cannot dismiss this article, without congratulating our truly learned and worthy Author, on the accomplishment of a work which reflects so much honour upon himself, and may prove so extremely serviceable to the cause of Christianity. With regard to the Supplement, we think ourselves obliged, in justice, to recommend it, as the most compleat treatise on the canon of the New Testament we have yet seen. It has fully considered, and seems to have finally decided, a number of questions, that have hitherto been much disputed among learned men.

Continuation of the Compleat Body of Husbandry. See Review for September last.

Book IV. *Of Coppice-wood and Timber-trees, in three parts.*

WE were told, in book 3, chap. 3. parag. 2, that 'when the *soil is too barren for the growth of an hedge*, there is often stone ready for the building a wall;' and that 'when it (the soil) is too damp for the thriving of those shrubs, which are usually planted for that purpose (i. e. the purpose of a fence) the very water that denies recourse to the common method will fill ditches, which will answer the purpose.' But in the introduction to this fourth book, this is all denied in direct terms, for here we are informed, parag. 6, that, 'as there are shrubs appropriated to the driest sand, so are there also to the most wet side of a river.—*that no piece of ground whatsoever need be left unused, since some tree or shrub will grow on it.*'—But it is not every one's fortune to be blessed with a happy memory.

Parag. 9. it is said, that coppice-wood planted on land that 'cannot be let for more than 5 s. per acre, may, at twelve years growth, be very well worth 20 l. the acre; and at a second felling, (but) *seven years afterwards, as much.*'

Now, was this true, the best land, if planted with wood, would not only pay as well as the worst, but be attended with much less trouble and care to its occupier. But the misfortune of it is, that an acre of underwood, even on the best land, must be very good indeed to be worth half the money it is here set at; and on their poor land of 5 s. per acre, it, very probably, at seven years growth, may not be one-fourth of that value. We have been well assured, that good underwood, from nine to twelve years growth, is frequently sold for one shilling per pole, statute measure, (or 8 l. per acre) before it be cut down. So that we imagine, our Author's computation was not drawn from practice, but merely ideal: and woe to the believing and practising reader of such erroneous directions!

Our Authors, in their introduction to this book, are very sanguine for *planting*. They harangue and declaim, with great earnestness, in praise of it; tell most extravagant stories of the vast profits; and muster up all, and more than all, the advantages attending this way: but have said nothing of the charges, trouble, inconveniences, and damage attending it. They have not told us, that trees generally injure, to a great degree, and often quite spoil, the hedges where they grow; that the under or coppice-wood frequently shares the same fate; that the grain is seldom good for much

much, where there are many trees of conſiderable ſize; that whole cloſes of corn ſurrounded by them, have been rendered of little value by their roots, ſhade, and drippings; that they ſtagnate the air, and prevent thoſe wholeſome briſk winds, which our Authors call *deſtructive* winds, from fanning and ventilating the corn, (and thus, by air and exerciſe ſtrengthening the joints, and enlarging the diameter of the ſtalks) carrying off or diſturbing inſects, aſſiſting the blooming, flowering, and impregnation (1), cauſing the corn to ripen ſooner, and better, and rendering it leſs liable to be injured by water lodging in the ear: and in harveſt the advantages of room and air, are as great as at any other time. Trees are alſo frequently very detrimental to the corn, by the harbour they afford to the fowls of the air:—and all theſe bad effects of trees are likewiſe, in a leſs degree, produced by hedges.

The firſt part of the fourth book treats of coppice and other ſmall wood, in five chapters. The firſt, of raiſing a coppice from *ſeed*; the ſecond, of raiſing a coppice from *ſets*; the third, of managing and ordering a coppice in its growth; the fourth, of the felling of coppices; the fifth, of pollards, or trees for ſhrowding. The two firſt chapters are minute, even to trifling, in directions for raiſing coppices from *ſeeds* and from *ſets*. They ſhew how to prepare the ground; to gather the ſeveral ſeeds; to prepare them; to preſerve them till the time of ſowing, (the ſpring); how to ſow them (2); to take care of them during their infant growth; and how to tranſplant them (3).

In

(1) This circumſtance, indeed, we only offer as a conjecture; but we humbly hope, not altogether an irrational one. It ſeems to us very probable, that the wind is ſerviceable to corn in this reſpect, for it is obſerved, that bees are ſo far from injuring bloſſoms where they gather their honey, that, on the contrary, they help them to *take*, or become impregnate, the ſooner, and more, by ſhaking the prolific powder into the matrix of the bloſſom: and wind, it is very likely, may do the ſame.

(2) Three methods are propoſed for ſowing the ſeeds, 1ſt. By ſcattering them equally over the well-ploughed and harrowed ground, in the ſpring. 2dly, by ſowing the ſeeds amongſt the corn; and, 3dly, by making 'trenches, or furrows, four inches deep, at—two foot diſtance—and in theſe furrows let the ſeeds be ſown—only one kind in one furrow—and draw the ground over them with a rake.' This way has the advantage of tilling the earth between the rows, which will forward the growth of them.

(3) Three ways are alſo propoſed, in the third chapter, for regulating the coppice to a due degree of thickneſs. One is to draw the ſhoots

In theſe chapters our Authors are very earneſt for ſowing the ſeeds, and raiſing the ſets, on the *pooreſt land.* We have, in our preceding remarks taken ſome notice of this opinion of theirs, and ſhewn ſome of the diſadvantages attending the practice; and we now recollect what they had ſaid on this ſubject in chap. 11. of part the firſt, where we are told, that 'no tree whatſoever will thrive in' yellow clay, but that it is 'fit enough for raiſing ſeedling trees;' becauſe 'they never thrive well when removed from a better ſoil to a worſe, but ſucceed to admiration when taken from a ſoil of this kind into good mould.' No doubt but thoſe few plants that may happen to ſurvive on this ſoil, when removed to a better, will improve on it; but this is not a good reaſon for inducing the huſbandman to plant or raiſe ſeedlings on a ſoil ſo poor, or ſo very unſuitable to them, that perhaps but few out of many plants may live through their infancy, or come to any perfection. But to know the truth of this, aſk a gardener, whether he chuſes the beſt or worſt ſpot in his garden for raiſing his ſeedling plants? Whether he would ſooner raiſe them on an old cucumber-bed, or on a bed of ſtiff-clay? It ſeems a little ſtrange to us, that the ſame ſoil which is ſo *unfit*, as they ſay the yellow clays are, for trees that are full grown, hardened, and ſeaſoned to it, ſhould yet be ſo *fit* and *proper* (their own words) for young, tender, infant-plants and ſeedlings: it might as well be aſſerted, that the bleak and barren mountains of Wales are better for rearing young lambs, and calves, than the rich, encloſed, warm lands of England. In a word, we imagine it may very reaſonably be concluded, that but little good can be done in the way of planting on ſuch over-poor land, that will only (as the farmers phraſe is) ſtarve a lark: and on which it is well known, that none but ſmall, ſtunted, uſeleſs, dwarf-ſhrubs

where they are too thick, and plant theſe in the thin places *. The ſecond is by ſtakes and cuttings: the ſhrubs for that purpoſe are the willow, ſallow, oſier, alder, aſpen, poplars and elder; and the time for planting them is, is the ſpring. The third way is by laying down in the thin places the neareſt adjoining branches in the manner a plaſh is laid down in a hedge; only opening the earth a little and laying in the branch, ſtaking it down with two or three (hooked) pegs, and then raiſe a little hill of mould all along where the branch is laid; the *laſt* time for doing this is in the beginning of the ſpring, we are told, but no information is given of the *firſt* time for this operation.

* This is directed to be done the ſecond or third *ſummer* from ſowing the ſeeds. Surely our Authors did not conſider what a very improper ſeaſon ſummer muſt be for ſuch work! We know not how to excuſe them here, except by ſuppoſing they miſtook that old maxim in planting, that *a tree to thrive muſt be planted with its green leaves on:* the meaning of which is only, that it ſhould be tranſplanted late in autumn, before the leaves are entirely off.

will

will grow; and therefore not very likely to afford ſufficient nouriſhment to ſuch capital trees as the oak, aſh, &c.

The reſt of this book contains the management, uſe, &c. of Timber-trees; in which it ſeems full, and particular:—but, for brevity's ſake, we ſhall paſs on to the fifth book, *Of the Animals neceſſary and uſeful in Huſbandry and Farming.* This is divided into four parts.—The firſt, of Cattle; the ſecond, of Fowls; the third, of Fiſh; and the fourth, of Inſects.—In the firſt part, upon Cattle, our Authors treat of the management and uſe of the Horſe, Aſs, Mule, Bull and his kind, the Ox, Cow, Calf, Sheep and Lambs, Hogs, Goats, and Rabbits.—With reſpect to the Horſe, they obſerve, that the diſeaſes he 'is ſubject to are 'very numerous, and very little underſtood;' that 'theſe de-'ſtroy many an uſeful creature, that might be preſerved with 'a little proper care,' &c. Now, if by *ſubject*, they mean *naturally* ſo, as we underſtand them, we beg leave to remark, that, in our opinion, the Horſe is not ſubject, naturally, to ſuch 'numerous diſeaſes,' as our Authors attribute to him: but that theſe are brought upon him by ſuch violences and exceſſes as, we are perſuaded, would injure the conſtitution, and fabric, of the ſtrongeſt animal whatever. For we apprehend, that Horſes, when moderately and regularly worked, and fed, and kept in very cool (or rather no) ſtables, very ſeldom ail any thing. While waggon-Horſes, that are irregularly and over-worked, and over-fed; gentlemens Horſes, that are under-worked, or not worked at all, and over-fed; Hacks, Nags, &c. that are over-worked and over-fed, by fits; and all, at times, crammed into cloſe hot ſtables, and, at other times, expoſed, often when hot, to the cold air, &c. ſhall ſeldom be well, or in health, long together. And it is obſerved, that even in the Farmers ſtables, where what they call good or fine Horſes are kept, the *Farrier* is almoſt a conſtant attendant there. But where plain, working, Horſes are kept, and regularly worked, and fed, *he* ſeldom comes: and it is alſo remarked by thoſe who keep ſuch ordinary working Horſes, that when any illneſs happens to them, they generally find, on a ſtrict enquiry, that it has been owing to ſome fault of their ſervants; as, driving them too hard, and, when hot, letting them drink too much cold water, or ſtand ſtill too long in the open air; or to overſtraining, whipping, beating, and many other kinds of ill-uſage.

In the ſecond chapter of the firſt part it is aſſerted, that a team of horſes 'never work equally, nor at eaſe to themſelves,' if they are not nearly of a ſize; for that their ſtrength is loſt, tho' their fatigue is the ſame; for the *tall horſes hanging up the low,*

low (1), render it 'impoſſible' for them to 'draw evenly together.' Now, the Huſbandman who has faith in this, will, doubtleſs, be very anxious to have his horſes all to a ſtandard; and would not buy a horſe at a fair, without his meaſuring-ſtaff, to match him, exactly, to his team at home. But, alas! it is all trifling! The difference in the height of horſes for draught, is generally ſo ſmall, that it is ſeldom to be much regarded: and where it happens to be ſo conſiderable as to occaſion any difficulty to the draught, it is eaſily remedied, by putting the higheſt horſe foremoſt in the team, the loweſt behind, and the reſt according to their ſeveral reſpective heights, ſo as to cauſe them to draw in a right-line. But there is no neceſſity for this right line, which, for the preſent, we ſhall call the line of draught, to be parallel to the horizon, (as they, by having the horſes of an equal height, inſinuate) for, generally, the point or center of draught, in plows eſpecially, in waggons, and, tho' leſs, in carts, lies below the ſhoulders of even low horſes; therefore it ſhould ſeem, that the line of draught ought to be in an oblique direction to the horizon; and make ſuch an angle with it, as may correſpond with the point or center of draught, and the fore horſes ſhoulders; and which will be equal to the difference between the elevations of the point of draught, and the fore horſe's ſhoulders, and when this difference vaniſhes that angle becomes equal to nothing, and the horſes draw in an horizontal direction,—which, as obſerved before, is very rarely the caſe in common draughts, except ſometimes in carts.

Beſides, there is a double advantage in the *line of draught* being in an oblique direction to the horizon. Firſt, if the Horſes drew in a line parallel to the horizon, they would force the weight they draw, more againſt the ſides of the holes, and riſing ground, than when they draw upwards; for then they, as it were, lift the weight they draw, out of the holes, and over the riſing ground.—Secondly, a Horſe has more power over the weight he draws, when it lies below his ſhoulders, than when it lies even, or on a level, with them, and leſs when it lies above his ſhoulders: for the force of a Horſe's draught is in a line from about the middle of his ſhoulders, and terminates ſomewhere near his hind feet; making a conſiderable angle with the horizon, which we may call the *angle of draught*. Therefore the nearer the weight lies to the Horſe's hind feet, the more power has he over it; becauſe then the angle which the line of draught makes with the horizon, becomes nearly equal to the angle of draught above mentioned:—conſequently, the team

(1) It had been more truly expreſſed, we apprehend, by ſaying the draught of the low horſes is ſpent on the ſhoulders and backs of the high ones, and by that means acts leſs upon the load.

ſhould

ſhould not be all of a ſize, or nearly ſo, as our Authors aſſert. And yet, after all, it is of but ſmall conſequence in general, what ſize the horſes are of; for the rings, or links, that are always at a horſe's ſhoulders when he is drawing, allow the chains to play nearly in a ſtreight line, whether the horſes are, or are not, of an equal height: except they are very unſizeable, and when that happens, it is only to act as directed before, and this *grand* objection is removed.

We had not dwelt ſo long here, had we not thought this abſurd conceit, ſo peremptorily laid down by our Authors, might put the too credulous Reader to great inconveniences, in regulating his team to a ſtandard heigth, in order to avoid thoſe imaginary difficulties.

The third chapter treats of the Saddle-Horſe for the Huſbandman. The fourth, of the Breeding of Horſes. The fifth, of Weaning Foals. The ſixth, of Breaking Horſes for Service. The ſeventh, of the number and working of Horſes. Here we are told, that in adjuſting the proper number of Horſes for doing the labour of 'any certain quantity of ground,' the Huſbandman ſhould allow 'in land of a middle ſort, about one Horſe to every ten acres.' At this rate, a farm of two hundred acres of land would require twenty horſes; and yet we have Farmers of our acquaintance who manage ſuch a quantity of land, with ſeven, or, at moſt, eight Horſes; and we may challenge our Authors to produce a renting Farmer who employs more in the huſbandry of ſuch a quantity of their *middle ſort* (as they call it) *of land.* And, as they have really ſurprized us with one aſſertion, we, perhaps, may ſurprize them with another, when we affirm, that the twenty Horſes, which, by their allotment, muſt be kept to manage a farm of two hundred acres, would go near to conſume moſt part of the corn, graſs, and hay, that their labour would produce on that farm: and leave but a ſmall matter to purchaſe manure, to keep houſe, to pay ſervants and labourers wages, rent, tythes, taxes, &c. &c.—Ah brethren! brethren! what are you about!

Chap. VIII. *Of the turning Horſes to Graſs, and taking them up to the Stable.*

Many of the rules here laid down appear to be uſeful. The proper time for giving Horſes green food is, we are told, the beginning of May; and the time for taking them up from graſs, is towards the end of Auguſt. The ſeveral ſorts of green food for Horſes are (it is ſaid) Clover, Rye-Graſs, Vetches, Lucern, and St. Foin. Clover, Rye-graſs, and Trefoil, ſown together, 'and 'cut freſh for their eating in racks,—keeps them freſh and in 'good heart, under the tighteſt duty. In the ſandy parts of 'Norfolk,

'Norfolk, and the adjoining counties, they ſow *Turneps* for the 'ſummer food both of their Horſes, and other cattle. They 'uſually give *it* [the Turneps] in the manger, ſometimes in the 'field; and it anſwers very well either way. The cattle eat it 'greedily, and it anſwers both for oats and hay(1). They uſe a 'particular kind of Turnep for this uſe, known by the name of 'the Yellow Turnep; the ſeed of which is ſold diſtinctly from 'the others, at every ſeed ſhop. They ſow it in *March*, and 'the Turneps are ready to pull at the end of *May*; and they 'continue ſowing again, and again, once in ſix weeks, for a 'conſtant ſupply, till the latter end of *September*; in all which 'time it keeps the cattle in excellent heart, and enables them to 'go through their work equally to any food whatever(2).' We have given the particulars of this Yellow Turnep food in our Authors own words, both on the account of its ſeeming uſefulneſs, and of its novelty, to us, at leaſt.

Our Authors alſo think, that the 'methods preſcribed in 'books, and practiſed by Jockeys, of bleeding the Horſes, and 'all their other practices upon the change of food,' are uſeleſs to the Huſbandman; for they ſay, 'it is idleneſs more than the 'alteration of diet, that cauſes the ſeveral ailments into which 'ſuch Horſes as are bred for finer ſervices, fall at theſe ſeaſons 'of the year. The Huſbandman keeps his cattle to their labour; 'and if he does this rightly, it will anſwer the purpoſe of bleed-'ings and drenchings, much more to his advantage.' They are alſo for the Horſe lying at graſs as 'long as he can well en-'dure the weather, and the food anſwers for him,' for 'he will 'be much better in the field than in the ſtable.' Nay, ſo much do they diſlike the ſtable, that they are for putting up *hovels* in the yard, for the Horſes to feed under, and to go in and out at pleaſure; 'this (ſay they) does not make them tender, like 'keeping them in the ſtable; and is excellent for preſerving 'their feet ſound(3), and keeping them in health and heart, 'and at all times ready for ſervice—and the Horſes (thus) eſcape 'the confinement of the ſtable, which is the occaſion of half 'thoſe diſorders that they are troubled with.'

(1) Take care Reader! place not too much faith here!

(2) Nor here neither; for, upon the whole, it ſeems ſo improbable, that, for our parts, we ſhould no more expect the Horſes of Norfolk to ſubſiſt *entirely* on Yellow Turneps, than the men of that county on their celebrated Norfolk-dumplings.

(3) And their legs from ſwelling, and from running at the heels. Many a Horſe ſhall have his legs ſwell, and his heels crack, and run, in the ſtable; but turn him abroad, and they will ſoon be well. It is the ſame with reſpect to colds; a Horſe that lies out, ſhall very ſeldom have a cold, but a Horſe confined in a cloſe ſtable, well as ſeldom be without one.

Chap. IX. *Of the Aſs.*

'A French Author, (we are here told) has written a treatiſe 'to prove, that the Aſs is the moſt uſeful to man of all animals; 'he founds his aſſertion upon its doing a great deal of buſineſs, 'and being kept at a ſmall expence.' And our Authors ſeem to think, theſe animals might be made much more uſeful than they commonly are, for the draught and carriage: eſpecially to the poorer ſort of Huſbandmen. But the Mule [Chap. X.] they prefer to the Aſs, as 'having its good qualities without its 'bad ones.' It ſhould be bred from the copulation of an Aſs and a Mare, rather than from an Horſe and an Aſs; the breed of this latter ſort being of an inferior kind: for it is obſerved, that foals take more after the female than the male. Mules are 'often of the ſize of an ordinary Horſe—are frequently ſeven-'teen hands high, and as large ſet as our common coach Horſes. 'They are much ſtronger than Horſes of the ſame ſize, and 'will bear greater hardſhips—be fed at much leſs expence, [and] 'are leſs ſubject to diſtempers.' Thoſe 'bred in colder coun-'tries, are always better and longer lived than thoſe in hot;' which, with our Authors, is a ſubſtantial reaſon for breeding them in England. 'Thoſe for the road ſhould be bred from 'light made Mares; and thoſe for cart, plow, and the like, 'from the larger bodied and ſtouter kinds.' Mules (we are further told) cannot propagate their kind. 'The Horſe and 'Aſs are difficultly got together, in order for the production of 'this creature—the Mare is averſe to receive the Aſs, and—'the ſhe-Aſs is unwilling to admit the Horſe to copulation;—but 'when that is done, there is no carrying the power any far-'ther.'

Chap. XI. *Of the Bull.*

Our Authors are for making this animal earn his livelihood by his labour; and they produce a Letter from a Gentleman, who has got a very ſtrong Bull, that pulls a vaſt load with eaſe, and, alone, at plow, turns up his heavieſt ſoils. He muſt be a noble Bull, indeed, who can ſingly do that work which requires ſix or eight oxen!

In this chapter we are entertained with the hiſtory of Bull-baiting, which, tho' a curious anecdote, our Readers muſt excuſe our not tranſcribing.

Chap. XII. *Of the Ox.*

Of the Ox it is here ſaid, that he is very ſtrong, and endures great fatigue; 'but he is ſlow, and muſt not be put beyond his 'natural pace,' eſpecially at firſt going to work, which ſhould not be untill he is three years old; and he may be kept to labour ſeven or eight years, and then be fattened as well as at any other

other time. He is leſs ſubject to diſeaſes than a horſe, and is kept cheaper; he requires no oats, but muſt have good graſs in ſummer, and good hay in winter*. The greateſt uſe of an Ox, in regard to labour, is that of plowing.

The reſt of this chapter deſcribes the method of breaking Oxen for draught, their management in breeding, feeding, &c. and ſeems to contain many uſeful particulars; which he have not room for here.

The thirteenth chapter is very full and particular on the Cow: but we muſt diſmiſs it with juſt obſerving two or three things. Firſt, in deſcribing the ſhape of a good Cow, we are directed, 'above all things, to ſee that ſhe have a large good white and 'clean looking udder, with four well-grown teats.' But, with ſubmiſſion, we apprehend, that the udder of a Cow ſhould be not only large (which yet it may be to a fault) but it ſhould be well ſhaped, that is, ſquare and broad; and not ſo very deep and hanging down: that comes on faſt enough with age. It ſhould alſo come forward under her belly, not hang all behind, between her legs; and ſhould be, not fleſhy, but thin; which may be known by handling, and by milking down well, as it is called: that is, when, after milking, her bag ſhrinks up, and comes into a much ſmaller compaſs than before. The teats alſo ſhould be not only well grown, but ſhould ſtand *well*, that is, *forward*, and at a good diſtance from each other, the better to drain the ſeveral quarters of the bag; and be alike in ſize. Secondly, it is ſaid, that 'the Huſbandman ſhould know rightly the 'time of his Cows being to calve; and three weeks before that 'he is to feed her better than uſual.' Now why have they not informed their Huſbandman how to know when ſhe will calve? by acquainting him how long ſhe goes with calf. If they ſuppoſe this to be commonly known, we alſo imagine, the other rule, of keeping her better before ſhe calves, to be as commonly known: ſo that there is as much occaſion for one direction as for the other. Thirdly, their notion of barley-ſtraw drying up a Cow's milk, more than oat-ſtraw, is, we will venture to ſay, without foundation: and we hope our *ipſe dixit* may, by this time, be as good as theirs,—without deſcending to further proof. Fourthly, we are told, that *Malt-duſt* may be bought for *three*

* Our Authors have given their Readers a particular detail of the way of keeping Horſes in Norfolk, and the neighbouring counties, with *Turneps*; but have entirely omitted them in the food of Oxen, to whom they are ſo natural, that vaſt numbers of Oxen are every winter fatted with them; and, no doubt they would, with a little hay, be very good food for the labouring Ox, in the winter ſeaſon. And this is allowed by an excellent judge in huſbandry, with whom theſe Gentlemen have often claimed acquaintance, however they happened to forget him now,—viz. Mr. Tull.

pence

*pence per buſhel** ; but not told the price of *Grains*, of which they had been ſpeaking before; and we apprehend they have miſtaken the price of Grains for that of Malt-duſt; for Grains are, indeed, about three pence per buſhel, (and they make the beſt milk for ſucking calves, nor do we find that they hurt the Cow, as *they* ſay) but Malt-duſt is generally ſold, within the compaſs of thirty or forty miles from London, at about a ſhilling per buſhel, and is meaſured as chaff is, two ſingle buſhels for one, under the term *double* buſhels. Laſtly, They ſeem alſo, in our opinion, to be deficient in their deſcription of a well-made Cow: but we muſt not ſtay to comment on theſe points any longer.

The fourteenth chapter, *upon the Calf*, we ſhall paſs over, with only remarking, that our Authors ſeem to give themſelves more trouble than, to us, appears neceſſary, in the management of the weaning, and ſuckling Calf: they lay down ſo many medical directions, and preſcribe ſo many medicines, that one would think their Calves were, indeed, as over-fed, and ſickly, as the puny offſprings of human luxury and debauchery.

Chap. XV. *Of Sheep, and the ſeveral Breeds in this Country.*

Sheep are here diſtinguiſhed into three principal kinds. Firſt, The Lincolnſhire Sheep, the largeſt ſort of all;—theſe like to live in the ſalt marſhes, and near the ſea ſide. The ſecond ſort are, what are called Leiceſterſhire, or Northamptonſhire; or, by ſome, the midland breed; being next in ſize to the Lincolnſhire: theſe will do very well upon the common paſture grounds, and thrive upon every common food. The third ſort are, the Herefordſhire, or Worceſterſhire Sheep; which have black faces, thin coats, and fine wool, and are the ſmalleſt of the three kinds. They are hardy, and may be fed on a dry, barren, and expoſed paſture. There are two other kinds, in a manner peculiar to certain places; theſe are the Welſh Sheep, and the Northern or Yorkſhire breed.—So far our Authors; but we think them much miſtaken, in limiting the ſeveral ſorts of Sheep to theſe kinds; for there are the Weſtern Sheep; (a ſort very different from any of thoſe they have deſcribed, and as plentiful, perhaps, as all of them together) the Hertfordſhire Sheep; the Norfolk black faced, hairy coated Sheep: and others. Nor have they told us of a principal natural diſtinction between

* We wiſh our Authors would make their words good, and inform us where this malt-duſt may be had, at the ſaid price. We ſhall be very ready to make them a handſome acknowlegement for their intelligence, provided they do not ſend us beyond ſea for the malt-duſt.

Sheep,

Sheep, that is, the Horned ſort, and thoſe without Horns, called Poll Sheep: nor which of their ſorts are Horned, nor which Poll.

Chap. XVI. *Of the of Choice Sheep.*

Chiefly conſiſts of ſuperfluous matter, and wrong directions. It acquaints us, that Sheep without horns are accounted the beſt breeders, &c. And yet, we imagine, the Horned Sheep in England, are more numerous, in proportion of four or five to one, than the Poll Sheep; which, if true, ſeems to prove the Horned Sheep to be the beſt Breeders. Moſt of the rules here laid down for knowing a ſound Sheep, are diſregarded by the greateſt *Dealers* in Sheep. And the principal rules which *they* go by for that purpoſe, are not here mentioned; for which omiſſion, no doubt, our Authors have a very good excuſe.

Chap. XVII. *Of the Breeding of Sheep.*

All the notice we ſhall take of this chapter is, to remark a maxim of our Authors, that 'no cattle whatever ſhould be fatted while they are going with young, for nothing is more dangerous to them,' &c.

This is contrary to all experience, and cuſtom. For ewes when put to fatting, have generally a ram put to them, after ſome time: ſows are ſuffered to take boar while they are feeding; cows to take bull, &c. All theſe animals lie quieter, and, of courſe, fatten ſooner, after the deſires of nature are ſatisfied:—but care ſhould be taken that this is not done too ſoon, leſt they ſhould prove too forward with young, when they come to be killed.

Chap. XVIII. *Of the Sheering of Sheep.*

This chapter affords nothing extraordinary.

Here we cloſe our account of the fifth book; and reſume our conſideration of this work in a future article.

Letters between HENRY *and* FRANCES. 12mo. 2 vols. 6s. Johnſton.

THESE Letters are chiefly of a ſerious and moral turn; and appear to be the fruit of a real correſpondence betwixt a philoſophical but fond couple, in Ireland; where they were firſt publiſhed, by ſubſcription:—whence the Reader may, perhaps,

haps, infer the rank, or, at leaſt, the circumſtances of the *Writers*,—who ſeem to have been themſelves the *Editors* alſo.

Henry appears to be a man of ſenſe and learning; his wife a woman of underſtanding, and taſte; and both of them perſons much given to reflection, and moralizing. They are likewiſe very fond of repeating the ſentiments of their favourite authors. Frances, eſpecially, is a mighty quoter from the modern Poets: but this gives their Letters an air of affectation and bookiſhneſs, which, were it not for thoſe paſſages which relate to the perſonal concerns of the Writers, would almoſt induce a ſuſpicion of their having been penned merely for the preſs.—However, to compenſate for this imperfection, they afford many things fit to inſtruct and entertain a ſentimental Reader; who will be equally affected and pleaſed with the frequent warm and natural expreſſions of conjugal tenderneſs, that are interſperſed throughout the whole: though it muſt be owned, that ſome few of theſe, perhaps, may partake too much of that fond kind of fiddle-faddle jargon, which fooliſh Lovers, doating Parents, and loquacious Nurſes, are ſo apt to pour out upon their miſtreſſes, and their children; and which few beſides thoſe who are in the ſame circumſtances, know how to reliſh, or endure: for inſtance, Henry, during his abſence from his wife, thus expreſſes his joy on the birth of a child.

'In the firſt place, how is my ſweet love? and well, and how is Bab? and what ſort of a Bab is it? Has it a broad, good-humoured countenance, like Dad; or a lively eye, double chin, and ſaucy look, like Mam? Is it moſt a Wit, or a Philoſopher? Does it incline rather to poetry, or metaphyſics? Is it compounded of the two heavy elements of earth and water, or the two light ones of air and fire? In ſhort, tell me every thing about it; what it ſays, and what it does, and whether it has ever yet diſcovered any ear for muſic; what ſounds affect it moſt, and whether its eyes ſparkle at the gay colours, or its brows knit into contemplation at the grave ones? I am in very chearful ſpirits upon this happy occaſion, and am exerting all my wit to be a very great fool about our ſweet infant.'——

If the puerility of the above ſhould force a ſmile from the unſympathizing Reader, it is, however, but juſtice to this affectionate couple, to obſerve, that the generality of their Letters are of a different caſt; witneſs the following, which we ſhall give as a ſpecimen of Henry's uſual manner.

Dear FANNY,

'AS the Poſt for this day is not come in, I do not know yet, whether you leave town to-morrow or no; therefore I ſhall write to you, becauſe I would not ſpare myſelf any trouble certain, for even the chance of giving you a quarter of an hour's amuſement.

'I met with a ſmall treatiſe yeſterday, intitled, "On the Employment of Time." 'It is wrote by Gilbert Weſt *. I think it is very well collected; for, indeed, it is moſtly a heap of quotations, and ſhews more of learning than underſtanding: for a work of this kind almoſt any man may compile, who reads with a Common-Place Book by him.

'Young, the Satiriſt, has two very ſevere lines againſt quotations, which, for that reaſon, I ſhall not recite; and there is certainly nothing ſo tireſome to the Reader as writings of that kind, which are only to be admitted in works of fancy, but not at all neceſſary upon moral or philoſophical ſubjects. For example; if Mr. Weſt ſpeaks ſenſe or reaſon, what occaſion is there to inform us, that Cicero thought the ſame way, or ſaid the ſame thing? It is Argument, not Authority, which convinces. All knowlege is derived originally from the human underſtanding; and a thought is nevertheleſs our own, becauſe it has been hit on by ſomebody elſe before: and one may as well quote Adam for breathing, becauſe he was the firſt creature who did ſo, as Euclid for ſaying that the three angles of every triangle are equal to two right ones, becauſe he was the firſt perſon who demonſtrated that propoſition.

'A quoting Author is juſt as ridiculous as a country girl, who, upon her firſt coming to town, being decked out by the help of her friends, ſhould make public acknowlegement from whom ſhe had her ſtockings, her ſhift, her ſtays, &c. So that, if every perſon was there to claim their own, ſhe would be left as naked as the jay in the fable, or as ſuch a pye-bald Author, ſay Writer rather, ſay Compiler, ſay Publiſher, ſay ſecond-hand Cook, who gives you a beggar's diſh out of fragments, or ſay Printer's Sign-poſt, upon which are paſted the heterogeneous ſcraps of many Authors.

'I remember a ſtupid ſort of fellow, who uſed to put me in mind of theſe men, who are too modeſt to ſay any thing of their own; for he never aſked for bread, drink, told you what o'clock it was, or mentioned even the moſt trifling occurrence, without adding, "as the man ſaid:" and whenever he had a mind, like theſe men, to ſhew the extent of his learning, by

* This is a miſtake. *The Employment of Time*, was the production of a Reverend Divine, now living.

recurring

recurring up to the moſt ancient authority, he would cry, "as the man ſaid *a great while ago*."

The importance of the ſubject which Mr. Weſt treats on, is great, and ought to be the frequent reflection of every man of ſenſe, morality, or religion. He has conſidered it with regard to the two laſt, and placed the matter in ſeveral very ſtrong lights: but, as a thing of this conſequence cannot ſtand in too many points of view, I ſhall attempt to conſider it with relation to the firſt, merely as a rational man, without any regard to virtue; relative only to our preſent ſtate, and, in that reſpect, confined entirely to ourſelves: which few hints you may ſtile, *Of the Oeconomy of Time*—Of the ſimple Enlargement of it—Or, a certain Method to lengthen Life, in ſpight of Fate, or of the Grave.

'There is an expreſſion often made uſe of by thoughtleſs people, which aſtoniſhes and provokes me extremely; "Let us do ſo and ſo, to kill Time." It is ſome revenge, however, to obſerve, what Suicides they are, at the ſame time of this moſt horrid and unnatural murder: So true it is, that we and our Time muſt live and die together. We generally lament the ſhortneſs of man's life taken together, while we are blaming the tediouſneſs of every portion of it. This contradiction may be accounted for, if we conſider, that as Time, unemployed, lags heavily along, an idle perſon, for this reaſon, muſt complain of tireſome days; and as duration is marked only by the ſucceſſion of ideas, his life muſt appear ſhorteſt, who has feweſt actions or paſſages to recollect.

'To conſider Man, then, only with regard to this life; what a miſerable wretch muſt he be, whoſe paſſing minutes are cold as ſo many hours, and whoſe paſt years are reflected upon but as ſo many days!

'Let us then, as rational creatures, contrive ſo to employ ourſelves in a ſeries of actions, which, by marking every period of our lives, we may enjoy this great and happy advantage, that the preſent moments ſhall glide imperceptibly away, and our paſt age appear ſo long, upon ſumming up, that we may not murmur at the ſhort ſpan "of threeſcore years and ten."

O Vita Stulto longa, Sapienti brevis.

'Again, it is computed, that the generality of men ſleep away about one third of their Time, that is about eight hours in the twenty-four. Now five hours is full ſufficient for any perſon, who would preſerve health of body, and vigour of mind: ſo that there may be above three hours ſaved out of every day, which is about one day in the week, and that is one year in ſeven.

ven. Then, by the Time a man has reached his grand climacteric, he may be ſaid to have lived juſt nine years more than ſome of his twin cotemporaries.

'What would a man give for nine years added to ſixty-three! How much more valuable are nine years before ſixty-three! for ſurely that Time is the moſt preferable, which we can live without growing older. We cannot, indeed, borrow Time from Death; but we can take it from its ſemblance, Sleep—Which brings me to the cloſe of my Propoſition, or "a certain method to lengthen life, in ſpight of Fate, or the Grave.

HENRY."

Our Readers will doubtleſs remark the ſeverity of Henry's ridicule of a foible which we have charged upon himſelf, but more particularly on his Fanny, to whom he has addreſſed that ridicule —of their own dear ſelves. This is, indeed, a ſtriking inſtance of our blindneſs to our own imperfections; and reminds us of what the Author of The Eſtimate of the Times remarks, with regard to the characters of Fribble and Chalkſtone: "Did ever characters," ſays he, "raiſe louder peals of laughter and applauſe, even among thoſe who ſat for the likeneſs? They hear with pleaſure, they acknowlege the truth of the repreſentation, they laugh at the picture of their own follies."———

We ſhall conclude this article with a ſpecimen of the Lady's epiſtolatory talents.

FRANCES *to* HENRY.

'I Would have anſwered your's of the 7th laſt poſt; but my not being well, joined to the preſent unſettled ſituation of my mind, had ſo much lowered my ſpirits, that I feared my Letter would appear to you of the ſplenetic caſt.

'I now return my thanks for the very elegant compliments you make me. To deſerve them, would be too high a boaſt for the moſt perfect of my ſex; yet I confeſs, though conſcious of my want of merit, I feel a ſecret pleaſure, mixed with pride, (not vanity) when praiſed by you. Though I am, perhaps, naturally vain, I find myſelf humbled, by the very means which might be ſuppoſed to raiſe it. I look on the compliments you make me, as I ſhould on a picture, which, though I had ſat for, the Painter, from the elegance of his fancy, not judgment, had made a finiſhed beauty. I am, however, proud of that affection, which can, to the very few merits I poſſeſs, add the multitude I want, and place me in ſuch a light, as it ſhould be my utmoſt wiſh to appear in.

'I have

'I have much to tell you about our Lady——. I am, at preſent, a good deal ſurprized at not hearing from her. She has wrote for her children to leave town on Wedneſday.—Is it not ſtrange ſhe did not mention me? Though I cannot account for it, I am reſolved to give her credit for acting right: She muſt have ſtrong reaſons for altering her purpoſe. I neither can, nor will ſuſpect any change in her friendſhip: ſhe gave it me voluntarily, unmerited, and unſought: and, ſhould ſhe withdraw it, I have not any right to complain;—but I will not torment myſelf with anticipating what I ſhould, indeed, think a ſevere misfortune. To-morrow's poſt may, perhaps, clear all.

'I wrote to deſire your opinion about my going with Nancy. I have changed my mind in that particular, and think of it no longer. If I was certain of going to France, I could not bear the agony of a laſt parting; which, I am ſure, that would be: The pain is already paſt; why ſhould I renew it? We are ſeparated; let us remain ſo.—If I ſtay in the kingdom, it would be an idle frolic, and might be attended with diſagreeable conſequences.—I will not go there on any terms.

'Your laſt Letter has almoſt diſtracted me. How can you write with ſuch tender concern, yet leave me in ſuſpence? When I apply to you, my Guide, my Director, for advice, why refer me to another? Is there a creature breathing on whoſe love, or friendſhip, I ought to depend more than your's? I hoped there was not: If I have been deceived, it is equal what becomes of me.—I will not indulge a thought ſo injurious to your honour, and my peace. How can you ſay it is agreeable to my inclinations to quit *you?* for I neither think or ſpeak of any other tye.—In return for your unkind ſuſpicion, I might tell you, that thought was ſuggeſted by your wiſhes, rather than opinion. You know my heart hangs on you; you are its ſupport, and the ſole ſource of all its happineſs, or miſery; and is it poſſible you can ſuſpect my love? Does not your own heart bear witneſs for me, and contradict ſo cruel an aſperſion? Unkind, ill-natured Harry!—Perhaps I wrong you. My concern tranſports me beyond the bounds of reaſon. You could not mean to injure me ſo highly.

'The concern you expreſs at my leaving the kingdom, ſhall, for the preſent, prevent my taking any ſteps towards it, till I have your opinion in more explicit terms; for by that only I will be determined. What can prevent your giving it freely? You certainly know what you would have me do; and you are bound, by every tye, to direct and guide my little bark through all the ſtorms of life.

'Though I ſhould be glad my Letters were deſtroyed, I will not, if I go, deſire to deprive you of them: their value is owing to your opinion: the inſiſting on them would be ſomewhat like ſtealing your reputation; impoveriſhing you, without enriching myſelf. It would give me the greateſt uneaſineſs if I thought they would be ever ſeen by a third perſon. They were wrote from my heart to your's, without a view of extorting praiſe; and were never deſigned for the unfeeling vulgar. I have not any apprehenſion of their being made public. You will not, for your own ſake, expoſe my weakneſs to the world; and I dare ſwear there is not another perſon in it, who would think them worth the trouble of reading. I confeſs I have often wiſhed for ſo much genius, or poetic fire, call it which you pleaſe, as might tranſmit to poſterity an idea of my affection for you, and "graft my love immortal on thy fame:" But that wiſh, like moſt of mine, is vain. Apollo denied my ſuit, though ſeconded by the ancient, not modern Cupid; but made me large amends, by promiſing that my name ſhould be immortalized by you.

'I have this inſtant recollected, that on this day twelvemonth I firſt ſaw Belvidere: will you forgive me, if I ſay, I wiſh I had never ſeen it? What an infinite deal of anxiety have we ſuffered for each other ſince that Era! and who can tell where it will end? Believe me, my heart's dear Harry, this reflection affords me as much uneaſineſs on your account, as on my own: I fear we are born to make each other unhappy.—This, I own, is a reflection unbecoming the woman you love; but ſtill I am a woman; and, though I think your loving me would make amends for every diſtreſs that could befal *me*, I cannot bear to conſider myſelf as the cauſe of any misfortune to *you*. Had we not met at that unlucky criſis, I ſhould, at this time, have been happily indifferent to all your ſex; and you, perhaps, might have been fortunately engaged in the laudable purſuit of ſome more worthy and amiable woman.—But, as I am ſo far a Predeſtinarian as to believe "whatever is, is right," I think there ſeems a kind of fate in our reconciliation. We have mutually given up the prime of our lives to each other; and, after an acquaintance of almoſt ſix years, we find our love, friendſhip, and eſteem, increaſing every day.—Does not this look as if we ſhould ſpend the calm evening, as well as the noontide of our lives, together? I will indulge this hope, caſt every black and gloomy thought behind, and rely on the opinion I have of your love, and the conſciouſneſs of my own, for all my future happineſs.—Do with me what you will; bid me go, or ſtay; I will chearfully conform to whatever is moſt agreeable to you.

My

My thoughts ſhall fix, my lateſt wiſh depend
On thee, Guide, Guardian, Kinſman, Father, Friend.
By all theſe tender names be Henry known
To Fanny's heart; and grateful let him own,
That ſhe, of all mankind, has lov'd but him alone.

'I beg you to excuſe this wild rapſody. My thoughts are not reduced to any kind of form: they are filled with love, grief, and you. If I had wrote laſt poſt I would not ſend this: I am quite aſhamed of it: indeed it is ſad incoherent ſtuff. Can you blame me for not being miſtreſs of myſelf, when I think of parting from you? I have done nothing but weep ſince I received your laſt Letter. If you conſent to my going, do not write ſo tenderly; for it will only make our parting more painful.

'I have yet a thouſand things to ſay to you, but cannot ſpeak them. I have already ſaid too much; yet, like a peeviſh child, I go on ſobbing to myſelf, after my reaſon tells me I ſhould have done.

'Adieu, my ever-dear, my beſt-beloved Friend! May happineſs, equal to my wiſhes, attend you through every ſcene of life! and may we meet, at laſt, in that fulneſs of bliſs, which ſhall far exceed our fondeſt hopes.

FRANCES.

A Treatiſe on Biliary Concretions, or Stones in the Gall-Bladder and Ducts. By Thomas Coe, M.D. 8vo. 5s. Wilſon.

THE ſubject of this treatiſe has not, in the Author's opinion, been ſo generally obſerved, and attended to, in practice as the importance of it deſerved. He therefore determined to give a full and clear account of it, according to the beſt Writers that have fallen under his notice, as well as from his own obſervations, and reflections.

We would not willingly derogate from the merit of an attempt, calculated, from the hiſtory of any diſeaſe, to improve ſo beneficial an art as the practice of Phyſic. Conſidered in this light, Dr. Coe is intitled to our applauſe. He ſeems to mean well, has beſtowed great pains to elucidate the matter on which he treats, by carefully gleaning, from a variety of books, every thing relative to the ſubject. He is not arrogant or aſſuming; but as he ingenuouſly tells us, has *done the beſt he could.* It muſt likewiſe be allowed, that from many of his obſervations, he may be accounted, upon the whole, not an injudicious or unſkilful

ſkilful Practitioner. But we are ſorry we cannot much commend his abilities as a Writer. His work rather reſembles a Common-place Book, whence good materials might be collected, than a finiſhed Treatiſe. He is extremely circumſtantial and tedious; full of repetitions; perpetually digreſſing; and ſeems fond of quoting a number of learned names, to prove, confirm, or illuſtrate particulars, however trite or trivial.

In his Preface he gives a general account of theſe Concretions, with the time when they were firſt noticed, and a detail of the Authors who have written concerning them. He proceeds next to ſpeak of what he has done himſelf: which we ſhall give in his own words.

'But after this free opinion of the writings of other Authors, what ſhall I ſay of my own; I will at leaſt ſay thus much for myſelf, that I have done as well as I could, and written with all the clearneſs on the ſubject that I was capable of; at the ſame time freely owning, that I wiſh I could have laid down the diagnoſtics and cure with more preciſion. Very glad ſhould I have been to deſcribe the ſymptoms with ſo much exactneſs, and to point out ſuch definitive rules, that the caſe of theſe calculi might always be known, and to eſtabliſh a certain method of cure, had it been in my power. But I do not profeſs to write in phyſic with certainty and demonſtration. Neither do I pretend to any *Noſtrum*, or to have diſcovered any infallible diſſolvent of theſe ſtones. All that I propoſe about the cure is, to treat of ſuch means as ſeem moſt probable to be of ſervice in the caſe. However, if what I have ſaid ſhould incline ſome Writer of more experience to ſupply my defects; or if I can engage a more general attention to a ſubject of ſo much importance; I am ſatisfied my labour will be well beſtowed. Time and future obſervations will afford a clearer doctrine on this head. I have choſen to write a pretty full account of the matter ſo far as I had materials. What I have done thoſe only can be adequate judges of, who know my ſubject well, and alſo know what has been ſaid upon it by other Writers. And to ſuch judges I freely ſubmit my performance, not doubting of their candour in excuſing its defects. If I ſhould be thought tedious, let it be conſidered for whom I write. Not for thoſe who know my ſubject as well, or better than myſelf, to whom I am far from preſuming to offer inſtruction; but for thoſe who know nothing, or very little, about it. And when I have made digreſſions, either to introduce obſervations, or to drop hints, here and there, which I could not weave into the thread of my diſcourſe, relating to other diſeaſes, or about the nature and uſe of medicines, I hoped that thoſe things might be as uſeful to ſome readers

readers as my main ſubject itſelf; by enlarging their knowlege of ſome of the more common diſeaſes; by fixing in their minds a due ſenſe of the great danger, and abſurdity, of truſting to any one univerſal indiſcriminating method of practice in any diſeaſe, a thing which, though far from being new, can hardly be too often inculcated; and by ſhewing them the neceſſity of judgment and caution in the uſe of ſome of the moſt common remedies, and the expediency of a timely application of them, eſpecially in thoſe diſeaſes where there is moſt danger of delay, and where a too late uſe of ſome of the beſt remedies may do harm inſtead of good.'

He concludes the Preface with ſome remarks on the dangerous conſequences of giving way to theory or ſpeculation on the one hand, or to quackery on the other. The good Doctor remonſtrates with great earneſtneſs againſt the laſt; and, like a ſtaunch Regular, comforts himſelf with at leaſt the ſatisfaction of having *borne his teſtimony againſt ſo great an evil.*

In his Introduction, conſiſting of near forty-eight pages, he deſcribes the method of diſtinguiſhing diſeaſes in general; expatiates on our uncertainty in regard to both their Diagnoſtics and Prognoſtics; expoſes the dangerous conſequences of comprehending them under general appellations, as Fever, or Colic, and applying remedies accordingly. To illuſtrate what he ſays on this head, he gives an inſtance of a Paraphrenitis miſtaken for a Cholic, where the effects proved fatal; and hence he takes occaſion to deſcant pretty diffuſely on that diſtemper.

The work is divided into five chapters; the firſt treats of the Bile, or Gall; in which we find nothing new or uncommon, as the uſes of the Bile in the animal oeconomy are pretty univerſally underſtood. The ſecond chapter treats of the Formation and Properties of Biliary Concretions; the evident ingredients of which ſeem to be, the groſs tenacious dregs of Bile, and an earthy ſubſtance ſeparated from the blood, of a ſimilar * nature to that of which the urinary calculus and gouty chalk-ſtones are formed. They are very different, he obſerves, as to their conſiſtence, ſome being compact and hard, others ſoft, friable, and light; neither do they diſſolve in boiling water, or in a ſpirituous menſtruum,—tho' Dr. Hales takes notice that ſome of them are ſoluble in a lixivium of ſalt of tartar. They are generally when dry more or leſs inflammable, eſpecially thoſe of a deep colour, which, he tells us, will flame like a candle, or

* That there is a conſiderable difference in the conſtituent principles of biliary and urinary concretions, may be juſtly concluded from the experiments of Dr. Whytt, and Dr. Springsfield; both of whom agree, that the efficacious ſolvents of the latter, have no effect on the former.

roſin,

roſin, and will conſume almoſt entirely, leaving only a ſmall quantity of a black inſipid kind of calx or aſhes behind. Their figure is extremely various, inſomuch that it ſeldom happens, that two of them are ſeen exactly alike. Their magnitude too is very different; viz. from the ſize of a pin's head, to that of a large walnut. The variety of colours obſervable in Gallſtones, if we may give credit to the authorities he quotes, are very remarkable, 'ſome are whitiſh, ſome of the colour of wood-aſhes, ſome yellow, deeper or paler in a great variety of degrees, ſome brown, greeniſh, of a lead-colour, black, &c. or of ſuch a mixture of ſeveral of theſe colours as is not to be deſcribed; ſome have irregular ſpots of a different colour, and ſome are variegated, or veined like marble. The inſide is ſometimes of the ſame colour with the outſide, particularly of thoſe that are whiteſt and moſt of the ſtony or earthy kind; as alſo of ſome that are of a deep ſhining black, or of a dark yellow, or brown. But thoſe which are covered with the yellowiſh white cruſt, before mentioned, have commonly their inſide of a different colour, either brown or yellow, deeper or paler, and often, as it were, marbled or veined with a mixture of a ſaffron colour and other paler ones, ſometimes with more and ſometimes with leſs regularity. This is the ſort which I have ſeen moſt of. And herein my experience agrees with Van Swieten's, who ſays, that thoſe had occurred moſt frequently to him, which on their outſide have nearly the colour and unctuoſity of Venice ſoap, but being broken, ſhew a yellow nucleus. Some are black as coal both without and within. Morgagni ſpeaks of ſuch, and of their being light and friable. And Dr. Huxham obſerved the like in the caſe I before referred to, but adds, that they had many ſhining particles in them like ſalts. Baglivi found two that were black and hard, but ſparkling as if they were a congeries of black cryſtalized ſalts. Sometimes they have been found of extraordinary colours; ſome green as a leek, or like an emerald, ſome bluiſh, ſome like cryſtal, colourleſs and tranſparent. Schenckius alſo quotes from *Traffelmanni Obſervationes*, an account of Daniel, Archbiſhop of Mentz, who died lethargic, anno 1582, in whom the *Ductus Communis choledochus* was diſtended to a very great bigneſs, and full of calculi, the largeſt of which were of the exact ſhape and colour of nutmegs, and the ſmaller of a ſhining lead-colour, ſo that they appeared preciſely like leaden bullets. They were eaſily broken, were yellow within, and of a bitter taſte. Camenicenus ſpeaks of one in the gall bladder of George, King of Bohemia, of a reddiſh colour, which he compares to the *Lapis Hæmatitis*. And Hoffman tells of ſome found in one body ſo nicely poliſhed, and of ſuch beautiful variegated colours, that they were thought fit to be ſet in rings, in the place of jaſpers.'

Theſe

Theſe biliary calculi, he informs us, have been found in different ſubjects that have been opened, from a ſingle calculus to ſeveral hundreds; nay, Hoffman gives an inſtance of a gall-bladder diſtended in ſuch a manner as to contain 3646 concretions, nearly of the ſize of peaſe.

He finiſhes this chapter with a digreſſion of twenty pages, concerning another ſort of concretions, namely, inteſtinal calculi, or balls formed in the guts, from gall-ſtones paſſed into them, or from plumb and cherry ſtones, or other extraneous ſubſtances, accidentally ſwallowed.

In chapter third he deſcribes the ſigns of Biliary Concretions, either while they remain in the gall-bladder, or when they are paſſing through the ducts into the duodenum.

'The ordinary ſigns of them, when they are making their way through the ducts, are as follow:

'The patient is ſeized with a ſudden, violent, ſomewhat deep-ſeated pain, either at the pit of the ſtomach, or more inclining to the right ſide, which is ſometimes more conſtant, but for the moſt part has exacerbations and remiſſions, in the manner of labour-pains; and this without fever, or any appearance of inflammation, and without any other evident cauſe excluſive of theſe calculi. The pain is commonly attended with great ſickneſs and vomiting, with faintneſs, ſhortneſs of breath, great reſtleſſneſs and anxiety. There is alſo generally (if the obſtruction continues any time) a coſtiveneſs, which is often very obſtinate, with whitiſh ſtools, reſembling ſome kinds of clay, both in colour and tenacity; the urine, though ſometimes very pale at firſt, as if from a nervous cauſe, uſually becomes of a deep yellow, as if tinctured with ſaffron; and a jaundice-colour appears in the ſkin, firſt in the whites of the eyes, then all over the body, ſometimes ſooner, and ſometimes later, after the pain begins.

'Theſe ſymptoms uſually continue till the ſtone is paſſed into the gut, and then go off, that is the pain, vomiting, &c. and many times too as ſuddenly as they came on. The jaundice, indeed, muſt have time to wear off by degrees; as muſt alſo the ſoreneſs of the parts which generally ſucceeds the pain for a while, as is common upon the going off of colics, or other painful diſorders. It is almoſt needleſs to add, that the patient's recovering from the great weakneſs which a ſevere fit often brings on, muſt likewiſe be the work of time.'

Having treated very diffuſely of the ſigns and different appearances while the ſtone paſſes through the duct; he comes to take notice of the ſigns while it remains in the bladder: which are as follows.

'Theſe

'Theſe ſigns will be different, and more or leſs evident, according to the ſize or number of the ſtones, as they take up more or leſs room in the bladder, and occaſion a greater or ſmaller weight or uneaſineſs to the patient, according to their ſituation in the bladder, and perhaps too in ſome meaſure according to the ſhape of them, to the roughneſs or ſmoothneſs of their ſurface, as alſo their hardneſs, ſpecific gravity, and other properties. If they are ſo large, or numerous, as to diſtend the bladder very much beyond its natural dimenſions, they may cauſe a tumour to be ſeen and felt externally on the right ſide, below the cartilages of the ribs, juſt in that part where the gall-bladder is ſituated.—When the ſtones are very large, or there is a great collection of them, though not ſufficient to cauſe a tumour to be perceived outwardly, the patient commonly feels a conſiderable weight and uneaſineſs from them. In the caſe before cited from Fabricius Hildanus, of thoſe two very large ſtones found in the gall-bladder, he ſays, that the man had for many years perceived a great weight falling from one ſide to the other, as he turned himſelf in his bed. They frequently occaſion a dull heavy pain at times, which may be increaſed by any extraordinary motion, or by a diſtention of the ſtomach; for which reaſon ſuch patients uſually feel themſelves moſt uneaſy after eating. In ſome inſtances the pain has been very great, rarely indeed, if ever ſo violent as from ſtones paſſing the ducts, though more conſtant and durable, eſpecially when by the largeneſs or ſituation of the ſtone it has preſſed upon the neighbouring parts.'

In the fourth chapter our Author conſiders the uſual conſequences of Biliary Concretions when they are large and numerous, and cannot be diſcharged. When the patient, eſcaping other fatal diſeaſes, lives long enough for them to produce their genuine effects, the conſequences are an ill habit of body, a continued jaundice, a waſting of fleſh and ſtrength, and at laſt an incurable dropſy.

We come now to the fifth and laſt chapter, containing the cure of Biliary Concretions. The Doctor here employs a great many pages to prove, that grave Phyſicians may ſometimes be miſtaken; that diſeaſes reſembling each other in ſome particular ſymptoms, may, nevertheleſs, in effect, be very different; that the ſame diſtemper in its ſeveral ſtages, and attended with various circumſtances, may require different methods of cure; and that the ignorant (which he is at great pains to prove) are not qualified to practice phyſic.

The indication of cure being to expel the calculi, through the duct into the duodenum, and thence promote their diſcharge by the anus,—bleeding, to prevent inflammation, is ordered in the firſt place, if the conſtitution of the patient ſhould ſeem to require

quire it. Next vomits are given, unleſs the circumſtances of a plethora, thin ſharp blood, unſound viſcera, nervous ſpaſm, or exhauſted ſtrength, ſhould forbid their uſe. After the exhibition of a vomit, a purge may be neceſſary to bring away what may have been diſlodged by the operation of the emetic, and likewiſe to expel hardened fæces, to which icterical perſons are liable, from a want of acrimony in the bile to promote their diſcharge. But ſtrong vomits or purges are equally to be avoided, when there is reaſon to believe the calculus is too large to paſs the duct.

Our Author is extremely prolix in enumerating ſpecific medicines, which have owed their reputation in the cure of this diſeaſe, to ignorance and caprice; ſuch as the *Curcuma*, *Gooſedung*, *Pariera brava*, *Earthworms*, *lice*, *&c.* remedies to which modern and rational practice pays no regard. We ſhall, however, give an abſtract of his method of cure, as drawn up by himſelf, at the cloſe of this chapter.

'I ſhall (ſays he) conclude with a ſhort recapitulation of the cure, and a recital of the method I uſually follow. Which, indeed, I vary according to circumſtances, always endeavouring, ſo far as I am able, to adapt it to particular patients, in which the true art of preſcribing conſiſts; ſince the beſt method, in any diſeaſe, and the moſt uſeful medicines, if not rightly applied, may not only do no good, but may even do very great miſchief; and a medicine which is generally good for this or that diſeaſe, may, for ſome particular reaſon, not be proper for this or that patient.

'Firſt then, I order bleeding, if I find indications for it, according to the doctrine laid down under that head; otherwiſe I omit it. I uſe vomits and purges according to the rules propoſed under thoſe articles. I like to keep the body always open, with ſtools rather lax than ſolid, either one or two or more in a day, according to the conſtitution and circumſtances of the patient. I preſcribe clyſters, fomentations, or a warm bath, when I find occaſion for them. I give *opium* as the exigency of the caſe requires, before vomits and purges, and after them, and at any time during the fit, when the pain is inſupportable without it. If there is ſickneſs at the ſtomach, and retchings to vomit, which want to be checked, I give a pleaſant generous julep, ſomewhat like what Fuller calls his *julap. antemet.* or at leaſt in the like proportions of *ſal. abſinth.* and *tinct. Thebaic.* but made more ſimple, by uſing no other water but *aq. font.* and *aq. alexet. ſpirituoſ.* or *menth. vulg. ſpirit.* Such a julep will often ſtay on a ſick ſtomach, when one made with the uſual doſes of *ſal. abſinth.* and *ſucc. limon.* will not, even if it has the ſame quantity of the *tinct. Thebaic.* in it. On the days free from vomits and purges,

purges, I mean after the fit is pretty well gone off, and the patient's ſtomach is able to bear them, I order alteratives of different kinds according to circumſtances. I often give twice in a day, *ſapon. Caſtil. vel amygdalin. æthiop. miner.* ā ā ʒß *vel uſque ad* ʒj. with a few grains of *croc.* or *ſpec. aromat.* or both; and waſh them down with a julep *e ſal. abſinth. ſacch. limon.* &c. in the uſual proportions; which julep I likewiſe order to be taken twice in a day by itſelf. Sometimes I add to the *ſapo.* &c. *tart. vitriol.* from ϑß or leſs to ϑj or more, eſpecially if the body is not ſufficiently open without it, or if I give thoſe ſolid medicines without the julep. And ſometimes I add alſo *gum. ammon.* or *myrrh.* Sometimes I give pills *e ſapon. cum rhei vel aloes ſ. q.* or with *gum. ammon.* alſo. And to ſome patients I have given every night, or ſometimes perhaps in the morning too, pills *ex argent. viv. gr.* v. *cum terebinth. vel balſam. copaib. exactiſſime ſubact. gum ammon.* ϑß *vel gr.* xv. *pulv. rhei vel pil. Ruf. vel e colothynthid. cum aloe q. ſ. ad alvum ſatis laxandam, ne particulæ mercuriales ad glandulas ſalivales ruant.* This medicine ſeems to be likely to attenuate viſcid humours, but I have not uſed it often enough to be clear about its effects in this caſe; and I would by no means give it to all patients, for the reaſons before mentioned, when ſpeaking of this kind of medicines.

'Sometimes I order a bitter infuſion to help the appetite and digeſtion, to which I often add a little *ſal. abſinth.* and either give *elixir vitriol.* along with the infuſion, or not, as I judge moſt proper for the patient.

'For common drink in the fit I adviſe *barley water*, or water gruel, with *mallow* or *marſh-mallow roots* boiled in them, or any other ſoft ſmooth liquor, as *linſeed* tea, or rather an emulſion made of thoſe ſeeds or an emulſion of *ſweet almonds*, with a little white wine added to any of theſe liquors. And ſometimes between the draughts of theſe a ſolution of *ſperma ceti* may be given, or to ſuch as can bear oil, *ol. amygd. dulc.* either by itſelf, or with *ſyr. e althæ.* or the like. When the fit is off, and the ſtomach can bear a quantity of drink, I would give *barley-water* with ſome of the *opening roots* and herbs before mentioned boiled in it, if the patient will drink it freely ſo prepared; or I ſometimes propoſe common *whey* for ſuch patients as like it, and can bear to take it plentifully. At proper times, but eſpecially when we have reaſon to hope that the fits are all over, and that the bladder is clear of ſtones for the preſent, *Tunbridge* or *Spaa*, or ſome other *chalybeate water*, may be of great ſervice. To thoſe who are not able to go to any of theſe ſprings, I adviſe *Spaa* or *Pyrmont water* at home. And to ſuch as cannot drink theſe in any quantity, or to poor people who cannot bear the expence of them, I ſometimes give *ſteel* in ſome other form, to ſtrengthen and mend the conſtitution,

on, in order to prevent any further ſtagnation of the bile, and the concretion of new ſtones. With the like intention I recommend exerciſe, as the patient is able to bear it, and adviſe that he ſhould perſevere in it when he is quite well, in order to continue ſo. And with a view to keep the biliary paſſages clear, ſo as either to prevent the formation of more ſtones, or to expel them while they are recent and ſmall, and have not yet diſcovered themſelves by any ill effects, I would adviſe, if there was nothing to forbid, that a vomit ſhould be given once in a while, in a month ſuppoſe, or ſix weeks, or two months, for a year, perhaps, or more; and a purge at a proper diſtance from the vomit, or whenever there ſhould be occaſion; and that at all times due care ſhould be taken to guard againſt coſtiveneſs.

'But in long obſtinate caſes, or where we ſuſpect large ſtones, and have but ſmall hope of a cure, I would uſe Van Swieten's method of aperients, &c. as far as ſhould appear ſuitable to the caſe and conſtitution, and the patient would comply with it, to try what favourable change time and perſeverance can produce. During which courſe, perhaps, alſo the uſe of *Bath water*, both for drinking and bathing, may ſometimes very properly intervene. And as to the reſt, we muſt endeavour to palliate the ſymptoms as well as well as we can, according to the indications; and to ſtave off the conſequences of dropſy, &c. by helping the appetite and digeſtion, and promoting the ſecretions and excretions as far as we are able; always remembring thoſe rules, which have been juſtly called fundamental ones in phyſic, and which are very plain rules of common ſenſe; namely, that it is better to do too little than too much, and that in all caſes where we can do no good, we ought to take all poſſible care that we do no harm.'

To this volume are added, two plates; the firſt repreſents the gall-bladder and its ducts, together with a portion of the *duodenum* dried; the ſecond, taken from Reverhoſtius, exhibits various views of *calculi*, and concretions as found in the biliary veſſels themſelves.

From the preceding view of Dr. Coe's Book, it will appear how extremely defective it is, with regard to ſtile and method. Theſe, though not the moſt material circumſtances in a work of this kind, are yet highly worthy the attention of every Writer: and, therefore, we hope, ſhould the Doctor's performance come to a ſecond impreſſion, he will endeavour to render it leſs offenſive to the ear, by correcting his many harſh and unconnected periods, and expunging ſome of thoſe diſguſting egotiſms which occur in almoſt every ſentence.

The

The Parliamentary or Conſtitutional Hiſtory of England; being a faithful account of all the moſt remarkable tranſactions in parliament, from the earlieſt times to the reſtoration of King Charles II. *Collected from the records, the journals of both houſes, original manuſcripts, ſcarce ſpeeches, and tracts; all compared with the ſeveral cotemporary writers, and connected throughout with the hiſtory of the times. By ſeveral Hands.* 8vo. 20 vols. Sandby.

IN our former Reviews *, we have given a particular account of the firſt eight volumes of this entertaining and valuable work; we have likewiſe exhibited the general heads of the five ſucceeding ones: and after ſo long an intermiſſion, occaſioned by the intervention of more temporary performances, we now reſume the pleaſing office of attending theſe diligent and faithful hiſtorians, through the progreſs of their elaborate and curious reſearches.

The ninth volume opens with the meeting of the long parliament, Nov. 3, 1640, concluding with their receſs in Sept. 1641. And in the tenth, their proceedings from the time of their meeting after the receſs are continued to May 19, 1642.

This parliament aſſembled in a very unhappy temper, and the King and kingdom felt the effects of their diſcontent. The illegal meaſures, which the unfortunate King Charles had been adviſed to purſue, in relation to Sir John Elliot, Mr. Holles, and others, the vexations of the ſtar-chamber, the exaction of tonnage and poundage, the oppreſſion of ſhip-money, the demand of loan-money, and other unconſtitutional ſteps, had ſo irritated the nation, that inſtructions were ſent up from all parts to their members; ſo that at the meeting of this parliament nothing but *redreſs of grievances*, and *vengeance*, were talked off.

The King was compelled by his neceſſities to call this parliament; for he was in extreme want of money, to pay the army he had raiſed for ſuppreſſing the rebellion in Scotland, and to ſatisfy other preſſing exigencies. Under theſe circumſtances, they obliged him to diſavow the late illicit proceedings, to ratify and confirm the privileges of parliament, to ſettle and eſtabliſh the rights of the ſubject, and moreover to relinquiſh ſome capital points of prerogative: particularly that of diſſolving the parliament without their conſent.

Had theſe reſolute patriots remained ſatisfied with ſuch conceſſions, which ſo much ſtrengthened the rights of the ſubject,

* See Review, Vols. IV. VII. VIII. and X.

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and contracted the power of the crown, thoſe extremities might have been avoided, which rendered the King deſperate; and drenched the nation in blood. But finding their aſcendancy, they ſeemed determined to trample on the prerogative; and to introduce a thorough change, both in church and ſtate.—So rare a thing is moderation among mankind, when they have once gained a ſuperiority of power!

Under pretence of reforming the church, they firſt attempted to aboliſh epiſcopacy. A petition of the city of London againſt the Biſhops, was preſented to the houſe by Alderman Pennington, attended by ſome hundreds of people; and the parliament was ſo eager in the proſecution of the bill againſt the Biſhops, that the committee, of which Mr. Hyde, afterwards Lord Clarendon, was chairman, ſat full ſeven hours the firſt day; and determined, 'That every day, as ſoon as the houſe was reſumed, the chairman ſhould report the ſeveral votes of that day to the houſe, which ſhould determine them before it roſe; which was without any precedent, and very prejudicial to the grave tranſaction of the buſineſs: for, beſides that it was a prejudging the houſe in its judgment, who, upon report of the committee, ſhould have regard to the whole bill in the amendments made by them, which they were precluded from, by having confirmed the ſeveral days votes; it was ſo late every day before the houſe was reſumed, (the ſpeaker commonly leaving the chair about nine o'clock, and never reſuming it till four in the afternoon) that it was very thin: they only who proſecuted the bill with impatience remaining in the houſe; and the others who abhorred it, growing weary of ſo tireſome an attendance, left the houſe at dinner-time, and afterwards followed their pleaſures: ſo that the Lord Falkland was wont to ſay, "That they who hated Biſhops, hated them worſe than the Devil; and that they who loved them, did not love them ſo well as their dinner."

Among the debates on this ſubject, our Authors have given us a remarkable ſpeech of the celebrated Mr. Waller, which, as they tell us, is not taken notice of by any of the collectors of the times, or printed among Mr. Waller's works.

He ſpoke againſt the abolition of epiſcopacy as follows: "There is no doubt but the ſenſe of what this nation hath ſuffered from the preſent Biſhops, hath produced theſe complaints; and the apprehenſions men have of ſuffering the like in time to come, make ſo many deſire the taking away of epiſcopacy: but I conceive it is poſſible, that we may not now take a right meaſure of the minds of the people by their petitions; for when they ſubſcribed them, the Biſhops were armed with a

dangerous commiſſion of making new canons, impoſing new oaths, and the like; but now we have diſarmed them of that power. Theſe petitioners, lately, did look upon epiſcopacy as a beaſt armed with horns and claws; but now that we have cut and pared them, (and may, if we ſee cauſe, yet reduce it into narrower bounds) it may, perhaps, be more agreeable. Howſoever, if they be ſtill in paſſion, it becomes us ſoberly to conſider the right uſe and antiquity thereof; and not to comply further with a general deſire, than may ſtand with a general good. We have already ſhewed, that epiſcopacy, and the evils thereof, are mingled like water and oil. We have alſo in part ſevered them.

" But I believe you will find, that our laws, and the preſent government of the church, are mingled like wine and water; ſo inſeparable, that the abrogation of at leaſt a hundred of our laws is deſired in theſe petitions. I have often heard a noble anſwer of the Lords, commended in this houſe, to a propoſition of like nature, but of leſs conſequence; they gave no other reaſon of their refuſal but this, *Nolumus mutare Leges Angliæ:* it was the Biſhops who ſo anſwered then; and it would become the dignity and wiſdom of this houſe to anſwer the people now, with a *Nolumus mutare.*

" I ſee ſome are moved with a number of hands againſt the Biſhops; which, I confeſs, rather inclines me to their defence: for I look upon epiſcopacy as a counterſcarp, or outwork, which, if it be taken by this aſſault of the people, and withall, this myſtery once revealed, *That we muſt deny them nothing, when they aſk it thus in troops,* we may, in the next place, have as hard a taſk to defend our property, [from them,] as we have lately had to recover it from the prerogative. If by multiplying hands and petitions, they prevail for an equality in things eccleſiaſtical; the next demand, perhaps, may be, *Lex Agraria,* the like equality in things temporal.

" The *Roman* ſtory tells us, *That when the people began to flock about the ſenate, and were more curious to direct and know what was done, than to obey, that commonwealth ſoon came to ruin:* their *legem rogare* grew quickly to be a *legem ferre;* and after, when their legions had found that they could make a Dictator, they never ſuffered the ſenate to have a voice any more in ſuch election.

" If theſe great innovations proceed, I ſhall expect a flat and level in learning too, as well as in church preferments: *bonas alit artes.* And though it be true, that grave and pious men do ſtudy for learning-ſake, and embrace virtue for itſelf; yet it is as true, that youth, which is the ſeaſon when learning is gotten,

is

is not without ambition; nor will ever take pains to excel in any thing, when there is not ſome hope of excelling others in reward and dignity.

" There are two reaſons chiefly alleged againſt our church-government.

" Firſt, Scripture, which, as ſome men think, points out another form.

" Secondly, The abuſes of the preſent ſuperiors.

" For Scripture, I will not diſpute it in this place; but I am confident that, whenever an equal diviſion of lands and goods ſhall be deſired, there will be as many places in Scripture found out, which ſeem to favour that, as there are now alleged againſt the prelacy, or preferment in the church. And, as for abuſes, where you are now, in the remonſtrance, told, what this and that poor man hath ſuffered by the Biſhops, you may be preſented with a thouſand inſtances of poor men that have received hard meaſure from their landlords; and of worldly goods abuſed, to the injury of others, and diſadvantage of the owners.

" And therefore, Mr. Speaker, my humble motion is, That we may ſettle mens minds herein, and, by a queſtion, declare our reſolution, *To reform*, that is, *not to aboliſh epiſcopacy*."

This ſpeech contains ſome very pertinent reflections on the inconvenience of the Senate's being influenced by a multitude; which, in theſe times of tumult, may well deſerve our attention.

Our Authors have collected many curious ſpeeches, concerning the redreſs of grievances; ſome of which have never before made their appearance in print. It would exceed the limits of our undertaking, to tranſcribe all that we think moſt worthy peruſal; but nevertheleſs we cannot omit the following extract from a ſpeech of Sir Benjamin Rudyard's, which, perhaps, may be deemed as applicable now, as it was in the year 1640.

" '—I have ever thought, and ſaid, that it muſt be ſome great extremity that would recover and rectify this ſtate; and when that extremity did come, it would be a great hazard whether it might prove a remedy, or ruin. *We are now, Mr. Speaker, upon that vertical turning point* and therefore it is no time to palliate, to foment our own undoing.

" Let us ſet upon the remedy, we muſt firſt know the diſeaſe: but to diſcover the diſeaſes of the ſtate is, according to ſome, to traduce the government; yet others are of opinion, that this is the half-way to the cure.

" His Majeſty is wiſer than they that have adviſed him, and therefore he cannot but ſee and feel their ſubverting deſtructive counſels, which ſpeak louder than I can ſpeak of them; for they ring a doleful deadly knell over the whole kingdom. *His Majeſty beſt knows who they are; for us, let the matters bolt out the men*; their actions diſcover them. They are men that talk largely of the King's ſervice, have done none but their own; and that's too evident. They ſpeak highly of the King's power, but they have made it a miſerable power, that produceth nothing but weakneſs both to the King and kingdom. They have exhauſted the King's revenue to the bottom, nay through the bottom, and beyond. *They have ſpent vaſt ſums of money waſtefully, fruitleſly, dangerouſly: ſo that more money, without other counſels, will be but a ſwift undoing.* They have always, peremptorily, purſued one obſtinate pernicious courſe. Firſt they bring things to an extremity, then they make that extremity, of their own making, the reaſon of their next action, ſeven times worſe than the former; and there we are at this inſtant. They have almoſt ſpoiled the beſt inſtituted government in the world, for ſovereignty in a King, liberty to the ſubject; the proportionable temper of both which, makes the happieſt ſtate for power, for riches, for duration."

So violent was this parliament, that nothing was heard of but impeachments, and cries for juſtice. Lord Keeper Finch, Mr. Secretary Windebank, Sir George Ratcliff, the Biſhops, the Judges, in ſhort, all ranks and orders of men, felt the weight of their diſpleaſure. But they were particularly relentleſs againſt the unfortunate Earl of Strafford, who was executed notwithſtanding the King's ſpeech * in his favour, and all the endeavours which were uſed to ſave him.

The King found himſelf obliged to give orders for a commiſſion to impower the Earl of Arundel, the Lord Privy-Seal, and other Lords, to give the royal aſſent to the bill for the execution of the Earl of Strafford; as alſo to another bill for the continuance of the preſent parliament: on which Mr. Whitlocke obſerves, " Great cenſures were paſſed upon the King's paſſing theſe bills, *the one being againſt his moſt faithful ſervant, and the other againſt himſelf*; and that he ſhould ever be brought to it, was admired by moſt of his ſubjects, as well as foreigners." —He adds, " That when the Earl read the news of the King's having paſſed the bill, (as not believing he would have done it) he roſe up from his chair, lifted up his eyes to heaven, laid his hand

* Lord Clarendon charges Lord Say with adviſing the King to make this ſpeech, contrary to the Earl of Strafford's own expreſs deſire, who ſeemed to apprehend the ill conſequence of it to himſelf.

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on his heart, and ſaid, *Put not your truſt in Princes, nor in the ſons of men, for in them there is no ſalvation.*'

Here we cannot forbear remarking, that when a King dares not exert his *prerogative* of extending *mercy*,—when he cannot even ſhelter his favourite from popular fury,—the power of the crown is abſolutely gone, and, in effect, veſted in the hands of the people.

This leads us to obſerve, that the only ſure method by which a Prince can maintain his prerogative, is to have no other favourite than his people. Where *one* engroſſes the royal favour and confidence, *others* will be jealous; parties will be formed; diſputes will ariſe, in which the King will be tempted to interfere; and his interpoſition will occaſion debates, concerning privilege and prerogative, and other topics of diſcord.

Many Princes have owed their ruin to their favourites, but none was ever ſo fatally miſguided as the unfortunate King Charles. Upon the impeachment of the Duke of Buckingham, in the year 1626, a paper was privately conveyed to him, importing,

" * That the great oppoſition of the Duke was ſtirred up and maintained by ſuch as ſeek the deſtruction of free monarchy. Becauſe they find it not yet ripe to attempt againſt the King himſelf, they endeavour it through the ſides of the Duke.

" That ſince the time of Henry VI. ſuch parliamentary diſcourſes might never be ſuffered, as being but certain ſymptoms of ſubſequent rebellions, civil wars, and the dethroning Kings, no one patriot daring to oppoſe them, leſt he incur the imputation of a fool, or coward, in his country's cauſe.

" His Majeſty therefore, ever ſtrengthened himſelf with ſome favourite, as whom he might better truſt than many of the nobility tainted with the deſire of Oligarchy.

" It behoveth, without doubt, his Majeſty to uphold the Duke againſt them, who if he be but decounted, it will be the corner-ſtone on which the demoliſhing of the monarchy will be builded; for if they prevail in this, they have hatched a thouſand other demands to pull the feathers of royalty."

By ſuch pernicious counſels, did this unhappy Monarch direct his conduct; his favourites, however, inſtead of ſtrengthening his power, only contributed to weaken it, and precipitate his ruin, and their own.

* The contents of this paper at large may be ſeen in Ruſhworth's Collection.

But to return to our Authors—Though the parliament were chiefly intent on the tedious buſineſs of redreſſing grievances, they at length reſolved to aſſiſt the Palatine family, then in the greateſt diſtreſs. Upon this occaſion, Mr. Holles made the following remarkable ſpeech; which we have extracted at large, becauſe, at this critical conjuncture, when there is ſuch a formidable alliance againſt the Proteſtant intereſt in Germany, and when every witling is exclaiming againſt all kinds of continental connections, we judged the ſentiments of our anceſtors particularly worthy the Reader's attention.

" My Lords,

" The Knights, Citizens, and Burgeſſes of the Houſe of Commons, have commanded me to let your Lordſhips know, that they have taken into their ſerious conſideration, his Majeſty's propoſal unto them of the Manifeſto; in which he is graciouſly pleaſed to declare his pious intentions concerning his royal Siſter, the Prince Palatine her Son, and the reſt of the Electoral family.

" They do with all humbleneſs, acknowlege his Majeſty's favour, in communicating unto them any part of his royal thoughts; and aſking their advice and counſel in a buſineſs that doth ſo nearly concern him, as needs muſt the happineſs, nay, the ſubſiſtence of theſe diſtreſſed Princes of ſo glorious an extraction; their veins being enriched with the ſame blood of royal anceſtors, which is derived, with glory, into his ſacred perſon.

" And, in that relation, the Houſe of Commons look upon them with an eye of tenderneſs; wiſhing that every drop of that princely blood may ever be illuſtrated with honour and happineſs; that his Majeſty may be crowned with this bleſſing, To ſee nothing but glory in himſelf, and in all that bow unto him.

" To hear then that theſe Princes, ſo nearly allied unto the King, ſhould ſuffer that which is ſo unworthy of them; inſtead of honour, of greatneſs, to find oppreſſion; inſtead of a fortune anſwerable to their birth and relation, to have their antient patrimony torn from them, and detained by a hand of violence; is a thing which makes our ears to tingle, and our hearts to riſe within us.

" My Lords, the loyal ſubject of England is ſo well tuned in a ſweet agreeing harmony to the perſon of his Prince, that he is affected with the leaſt touch upon any part of the princely ſtring, and anſwers it inſtantly with a ſound proportionable; if it be good and pleaſant, with joy and exultation; if harſh and diſpleaſant, with ſorrow and lamentation; a ſorrow not womaniſh

maniſh and fatuant, but accompanied with indignation, with vigorous, magnanimous reſolution, to be avenged upon whoſoever dare give offence to our Royal Sovereign.

" This then is enough to make us zealous for the redreſs of the Prince Elector's wrongs, and to deſire, with impatience, to ſee him re-inveſted in his rightful poſſeſſions; were there nothing elſe to move us to it, but our love, our affection, and our duty to the King.

" But, my Lords, there is yet another motive, which hath a ſtrong irreſiſtable operation with us; and it is the conſideration, how much this is of importance to the good of religion, the advancement of the Proteſtant party, and the redeeming many ſouls from their Antichriſtian bondage. This hath a double aſpect, and relates to us, not only as we are fellow-members with them of the true church; which obliges us to a care and defence of them, and gives us an aſſurance of a reward in heaven: but doth more particularly concern us in point of policy and reaſon of ſtate, by ſupporting our allies, to advance this kingdom to the higheſt pitch of greatneſs and reputation; to make us formidable abroad to the enemies of our church and ſtate; and ſo enjoy peace, ſafety, and tranquility at home.

" *For, my Lords, the Proteſtant religion, and this kingdom, are like Hippocrates's twins, that muſt both live and die together.*

" *It is madneſs to think this ſtate can ſubſiſt, if religion be ſubverted; and as great madneſs to think our religion can continue here, if we ſuffer it to be deſtroyed and eradicated out of our neighbour-countries; which can no more be, (that is, our religion and this kingdom be preſerved) when our neighbours, of the ſame religion and belief with us be conſumed, than a fort can hold out, when all the out-works are taken; or the heart preſerved, when a gangrene hath ſeized on the outward parts of the body.*

" My Lords, as the true religion is, in fact, the heart of England, which gives it life, and makes it flouriſh with ſtrength and power, *ſo is England, in politic reſpects, the heart of the Proteſtant religion in all the other parts of Chriſtendom*; and, *upon occaſion, muſt ſend out ſupply into all the neighbouring countries profeſſing the ſame religion with it*; which (to be themſelves in ſafety) muſt be under the protection of this fort, under contribution to this garriſon.

" And, on the other ſide, if theſe countries be, one after another, invaded and poſſeſſed by the enemies of our religion, that great tie of religion between us and thoſe bonds, which only can unite and ſtrengthen our mutual affections and relations, will be diſſolved; and if they get one part, their appetite will

increaſe ſoon to ſwallow up another; as, firſt, the Palatinate; then the other parts of Germany; afterwards the Low Countries; and then let us think in what condition England will ſtand. It will be left as a cottage in a vineyard; as a lodge in a garden of cucumbers; as a beſieged city, when all the defences are gone: it will ſoon fall to be a prey to the enemy.

"My Lords, this conſideration likewiſe works with the Commons of England; and as the wiſe man is to have his eyes in his head, and look before him; ſo they do look before them, and had rather ſee this evil met half-way, than ſtay till it comes to them; rather ſee the eating gangrene of the Auſtrian ambition in Germany, than tarry till it ſeizes upon the vital parts of this iſland, when the death of religion muſt inevitably follow."

The following obſervations of Sir Benjamin Rudyard likewiſe well deſerve our conſideration at this time.

"We are, Mr. Speaker, ſo bounded by the nature of our ſituation, that we are not ſo proper to extend ourſelves upon the firm land as our neighbours; *our aptitude is rather to balance*; which, being rightly uſed, may make the King the great arbiter of all the affairs of Chriſtendom, by aſſiſting, with-holding, or oppoſing.

"Henry VIII. is an example of this; he was ſometimes on the ſide of the Emperor, other times of the French party, according as he ſaw either ſide of the ſcales to weigh heavier or lighter. Some might think this to be inconſtancy in him; but it was certainly out of a true and peculiar underſtanding of his power.

"By the preſent ſtate of Chriſtendom it is apparent, that the houſe of Auſtria begins to diminiſh, as in Spain, ſo conſequently in Germany: *that the French do ſwell and enlarge themſelves*; if they grow and hold, they will be to us only Spain nearer hand.

"Alliances do ſerve well to make up a preſent breach, or mutually to ſtrengthen thoſe ſtates who have the ſame ends; but politic bodies have no natural affections, they are guided by particular intereſt, and beyond that are not to be truſted."

On the 20th of October, 1641, the parliament met after their adjournment, (the King being in Scotland) and Mr. Pymme reported what had been done by the committee during the receſs; and they proceeded with great vigour to the redreſs of grievances. For this purpoſe they haſtened the famous *declaration*, or *remonſtrance* of the ſtate of the kingdom; which contained ſuch a bitter recapitulation of all the illegal things done, from the

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firſt hour of the King's coming to the crown, with ſuch ſharp reflections on the King himſelf, the Queen, and the Council, that it met with extraordinary oppoſition, conſidering the temper of thoſe times: and Sir Edward Dering, though he had ſignalized himſelf againſt the court, ſpoke againſt it in the following terms:

"When I firſt heard of a remonſtrance, I preſently imagined that, like faithful counſellors, we ſhould hold up a glaſs to his Majeſty: I did not dream we ſhould remonſtrate downwards, tell ſtories to the people, and talk of the King as of a third perſon. The uſe and end of ſuch a remonſtrance I underſtand not; at leaſt I hope I do not."

The houſe, ſays Lord Clarendon, ſeemed generally to diſlike it, "many ſaying, That it was very unneceſſary and unſeaſonable; unneceſſary, all thoſe grievances being already fully redreſſed, and the liberty and property of the ſubject being as well ſecured for the future as could poſſibly be done; and unſeaſonable, after the King had gratified them with granting every thing which they had deſired of him; and after ſo long abſence in the ſettling the diſorders in another kingdom, which he had happily compoſed, to be now welcomed home with ſuch a volume of reproaches, for what others had done amiſs, and which he himſelf had reformed."

Nevertheleſs, the oppoſite party prevailed, that a day ſhould be appointed, when the houſe ſhould be reſolved into a committee of the whole houſe, and the remonſtrance be then retaken into conſideration.

On 'the day that it was to be reſumed, they entertained the houſe with other debates, and, towards noon, called for the remonſtrance; and it being urged by ſome, "that it was too late to enter upon it," with much difficulty they conſented, "that it ſhould be entered upon the next morning, at nine of the clock, and every clauſe ſhould be debated, the Speaker in the chair;" for they would not have the houſe reſolved into a committee, which they believed would ſpend too much time. Oliver Cromwell, who at that time was little taken notice of, aſked the Lord Falkland, "Why he would have it put off, for that day would quickly have determined it?" He anſwered, 'There would not have been time enough; for ſure it would take ſome debate.' The other replied, 'A very ſorry one:' they ſuppoſing by the computation they had made, that very few would oppoſe it. But he quickly found he was miſtaken; for, the next morning, the debate being entered upon about nine of the clock, it continued all that day; and candles being called for when it grew dark, (neither ſide being very deſirous to adjourn till the next day, though it was evident very many withdrew themſelves

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out of pure faintneſs and diſability to attend the concluſion] the debate continued till it was after twelve o'clock, with much paſſion; and the houſe being then divided upon the paſſing or not paſſing it, it was carried in the affirmative by nine voices, and no more *: And, as ſoon as it was declared, Mr. Hambden moved, 'that there might be an order entered for the preſent printing of it,' which produced a ſharper debate than the former. It appeared then, that they did not intend to ſend it up to the Houſe of Peers, for their concurrence; but that it was, upon the matter, an appeal to the people, and to infuſe jealouſies into their minds. It had ſeldom been the cuſtom to publiſh any debates or determinations of the houſe, which were not firſt regularly tranſmitted to the Houſe of Peers; nor was it thought, in truth, that the Houſe had authority to give warrant for the printing of any thing; all which was offered by Mr. Hyde, with ſome warmth, as ſoon as the motion was made for printing it; and he ſaid, "He believed the printing it, in that manner, was not lawful, and he feared it would produce miſchievous effects; and therefore deſired the leave of the Houſe, that if the queſtion ſhould be put, and be carried in the affirmative, he might have liberty to enter his proteſtation;' which he no ſooner ſaid, than Jeffrey Palmer, a man of great reputation, and much eſteemed in the Houſe, ſtood up, and made the ſame motion for himſelf, 'that he might likewiſe proteſt.' Many afterwards, without diſtinction, and in ſome diſorder, cried out together, 'They did proteſt;' ſo that there was, after, ſcarce any quiet and regular debate: but the Houſe, by degrees, being quieted, they all conſented, about two of the clock in the morning, to adjourn till two of the clock the next afternoon. And as they went out of the houſe, the Lord *Falkland* aſked Oliver Cromwell, "Whether there had been a debate?" To which he anſwered, 'He would take his word another time;" and whiſpered him in the ear, with ſome aſſeveration, 'that if the remonſtrance had been rejected, he would have ſold all he had the next morning, and never have ſeen England more; and he knew there were many other honeſt men of the ſame reſolution.'

Ruſhworth ſays, "That this debate laſted from three in the afternoon till three the next morning; ſo that one ſaid, 'It looked like the *verdict* of a *ſtarved jury*."

So great was the ſpirit of the Houſe at this time, that Mr. Palmer, member for Stamford, afterwards Attorney-General, was ſent to the Tower, for ſome words uſed in a proteſtation againſt this violent declaration.

* By the Journals, the majority was eleven.

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The King, on his return from Scotland, met his parliament in this ill-humour; and the firſt ſtep he took was, to order the guards to be diſmiſſed, which they had appointed for their ſecurity in his abſence.

The rebellion in Ireland added to the diſorder of the times; and the rebels' demand of the free exerciſe of their religion, afforded the diſcontented an opportunity of fomenting the jealouſies conceived againſt the government, on account of the alleged deſign to introduce popery.

The popular rage againſt the Biſhops was ſo high, that the mob laid violent hands on them; whereupon they, with many members of both Houſes, withdrew their attendance: and the Biſhops preſented a proteſtation againſt all proceedings during their forced abſence from the houſe, for which they were ordered into cuſtody, and afterwards impeached. Theſe proceedings againſt the Biſhops, which are omitted in Ruſhworth, are collected by our Authors from the Lords journals, with great diligence and accuracy.

The parliament now received addreſſes from all quarters: even the tradeſmen's wives, and city apprentices, petitioned againſt the Biſhops, and called for a redreſs of grievances!

There had been many debates in the Houſe of Commons concerning the militia. Some being of opinion, that the power was ſolely in the King; others, that it was altogether in the parliament. In one of theſe debates Mr. Whitlocke obſerved, "*that the King could not compel any of his ſubjects to ſerve him in the wars; and that none could be* PRESSED *but by act of* PARLIAMENT."

To compoſe theſe differences, the King gave his aſſent to an act for levying of ſoldiers, in which there was the following remarkable clauſe, declaring, "That, *by the law, no man ought to be impreſſed, nor otherwiſe compelled to go out of his country, to ſerve as a ſoldier, without his own particular aſſent*; or by common conſent of parliament, wherein he is involved; unleſs it be upon neceſſity of the ſudden coming of ſtrange enemies into the land, as, heretofore, it was ordained by a ſtatute made in the firſt year of the reign of the noble King Edward III. or that he be thereunto obliged by tenure; the contrary whereof hath been practiſed for many ages *viâ facti*."

But the parliament having loſt all moderation, were not ſo eaſily ſatisfied; and they paſſed an ordinance for ſettling the militia without the King. To this the King would never give his aſſent; and being preſſed to grant the militia, as deſired by parliament,

liament, *for a time*, he ſwore,—*Not for an hour; you have aſked that of me in this, which was never asked of a King, and with which I will not truſt my wife and children.*

The King had for ſome time left London, and removed to Hampton-Court, from thence to Windſor, and at length to York. Many prudent men cenſured his removal, but the numbers of people gathered in a tumultous manner about Weſtminſter and Whitehall, and his hopes that the Houſe of Commons might cool in his abſence, were alleged in his juſtification.

But things were come to too great an extremity to afford room for reconciliation; and the Commons proceeding from one encroachment on the prerogative to another, attempted even to reſtrain the King's power of creating peers, and appointing the great officers of ſtate.

The King declared his intention of going to Ireland, to ſuppreſs the rebellion in perſon: but the parliament, and the Scotch commiſſioners petitioned againſt it; being jealous that he favoured the rebels, and meant to uſe their force to reduce his parliament to obedience. Every thing now tended to an open rupture: papers were diſperſed about, concerning the nature of allegiance, tending to weaken obedience; and though the King ſent a meſſage to the Lords, complaining againſt theſe papers as ſeditious and treaſonable, yet his meſſage was diſregarded by both houſes, and his authority was ſo much deſpiſed, that Sir Henry Ludlow was *only reproved* by the Speaker, for ſaying, *that the King was not worthy to be King of England.*

The King being in the North, the parliament ſent orders to Sir John Hotham, the Governor of Hull, to admit no forces into the town, without the King's authority, *ſignified by both Houſes of Parliament.* Whereupon the King himſelf demanding entrance, Sir John refuſed to admit him; and upon the King's complaint to the Lords againſt Sir John Hotham as a traitor, the parliament juſtified Sir John's refuſal.

Hereupon the King and Parliament began to make levies, and the civil war now broke out, which made this kingdom a ſcene of blood, and ended in the deſtruction of the King, and the overthrow of the conſtitution.

[*To be continued.*]

The

The Doctrine of Original Sin, according to Scripture, Reaſon, and Experience. By J. Weſley. 8vo. 6s. Briſtol, printed by E. Farley.

AN abundant zeal for the doctrine of *original ſin*, and a tremendous dread of its decline, through the fatal influence of Dr. Taylor's writings, ſeem to have given birth to this piece of Polemical divinity. 'I dare not,' ſays Mr. Weſley in his preface, 'be ſilent any longer: neceſſity is laid upon me, to provide thoſe who deſire to know the truth, with ſome antidote againſt that deadly poiſon, which has been diffuſing itſelf for ſeveral years, through our nation, our church, and even our univerſities. Nay, one (I hope only one) Father of the church has declared, "that he knows no book more proper than this (Dr. Taylor's) to *ſettle the principles* of a young clergyman." Is it not time then for *the very ſtones* to *cry out?*'

If this be thought too warm a ſtrain, what will our judicious Readers, what muſt every candid Chriſtian (be his peculiar tenets what they will) think of Mr. Weſley's charging the Doctor with being a Deiſt? 'It may be doubted,' ſays he, 'whether the ſcheme before us be not far more dangerous than open Deiſm itſelf.'—Than open Deiſm. For I cannot look on this ſcheme as any other than *old* Deiſm in a *new* dreſs: ſeeing it ſaps the very foundation of all revealed religion, whether Jewiſh or Chriſtian.'

The method which our Author purſues, is, firſt, to attempt a proof of the fact itſelf, viz. Original Sin; and, ſecondly, to account for it. Under the former head, he conſiders the ſtate with regard to knowlege and virtue, wherein Mankind have been from the earlieſt times; and what ſtate they are in at this day.

And here the Reader is preſented with a moſt unlovely picture of the human ſpecies. Nor is it leſs falſe than foul. Of this his account of the ſtate of mankind, as to piety and virtue, before the flood, is one among many inſtances. 'Moſes,' ſays he, 'gives us an exact and full account, God then *ſaw that the wickedneſs of man was great, and that every imagination of the thoughts of his heart was only evil continually.*—Such was the ſtate of mankind for at leaſt ſixteen hundred years.' How unfair a repreſentation is this! Does it follow, by any rule of logic, that becauſe mankind were univerſally degenerate, ſave Noah and his family, when God purpoſed to deſtroy the earth with a flood, that their ſtate was ſuch during ſixteen hundred years? Nay, does not the expreſſion, *all fleſh had corrupted his way upon the earth*, imply juſt the contrary, viz. that their ſtate had not been ſuch for ſo long a time?

Ano-

Another inſtance of Mr. Weſley's ignorance of the true meaning of the texts he brings in ſupport of his opinion, or his wilful miſapplication of them, is, his account of the moral ſtate of mankind in the ſucceeding period; viz. from the flood to the vocation of Abraham. He does not heſitate to allege, that men were univerſally wicked, though he has no other proof of it than the attempt to build the tower of Babel. This he very confidently aſſerts (and without offering one reaſon for ſuch an aſſertion) was a piece of *daring wickedneſs*, and the confuſion of tongues a *judgment* upon them. 'Now whatever particulars,' ſays he, 'in this account may be variouſly interpreted, thus much is clear and undeniable, that all theſe, that is, all the inhabitants of the earth again *corrupted their way*; the univerſal wickedneſs being legible in the univerſal puniſhment.'

It is not with pleaſure, but reluctance, that we have been obliged to exhibit theſe ſpecimens of Mr. Weſley's manner of arguing; without which our general remarks on this part of his work might have appeared groundleſs, and been ſuſpected to have proceeded only from partiality. Let it be obſerved moreover, that we have produced them, not to ſhew the weakneſs of the cauſe he would ſupport, but the inſufficiency of the arguments he makes uſe of in its defence.

Having undeniably, our Author thinks, eſtabliſhed the fact, he proceeds to ſearch for its cauſe; and obſerves, that neither the prevalence of cuſtom, nor education, thoroughly accounts for it; and that therefore we ſhould have recourſe to theoracles of God. And 'how,' ſays he, 'do the oracles of God teach us to account for this plain fact? They teach us, that *in* Adam *all die:* that *by* the firſt *man came* both natural and ſpiritual *death*; that *by* this *one man ſin entered into the world, and death* in conſequence of *ſin: and* that from him *death paſſed upon all men, in that all have ſinned.*' Such is Mr. Weſley's *whole* account of the doctrine of original ſin; for all that follows in this ſecond and third part, is little elſe than ſhort obſervations on Dr. Taylor's ſcheme, with much affectation of learning and critical ſkill, which cannot fail to diſguſt the judicious, as much as it will pleaſe, and gain admiration from, readers of a *certain* complection.

The fourth and laſt part (which is near one half of this treatiſe) contains the doctrine of original ſin, as extracted from Dr. Watts, and Mr. Hebden.

St. Juſtin the Philoſopher and Martyr, his Exhortations to the Gentiles. Tranſlated from the Greek, by the Reverend Mr. Thomas Moſes, *one of the Miniſters of St. Paul's Chapel, Aberdeen.* 8vo. 1s. Hitch.

THESE two Exhortations are directed more particularly to the Grecian Gentiles. The Author's principal intention is to convince them, upon their own *principles*, of the ſuperior excellency of the Holy Scriptures, to the religion they profeſs. As the belief of one only ſupreme Being is the baſis of true religion, ſo he ſhews them, that their own philoſophers and poets, and indeed their oracles, declared many things conſiſtent with this doctrine, and in favour of thoſe truths delivered by Moſes and the Prophets; and therefore, that they not only erred in worſhipping their gods, and profeſſed a religion ridiculous, abſurd, and deteſtable, but in doing ſo, acted alſo inconſiſtently with themſelves.

This method which he takes to perſuade them, may have led him to lay the ſtreſs he doth on the Sybiline oracles; and taken in this light, viz. as appealing only to what the Gentiles had in great reverence, neither Juſtin Martyr, (as the Tranſlator obſerves in his preface) nor the primitive fathers of the church, can juſtly deſerve that obloquy ſo freely beſtowed on them. The ſame apology, however, will not ſerve for his ſtretching ſome other matters in ſupport of his cauſe, beyond what they will bear. Of this, his account of the tranſlation of the Old Teſtament by the Septuagint, wherein he ſuppoſes it to be according to the infallible dictates of the Holy Spirit, will be conſidered by every reaſonable mind as an inſtance.

With regard to the Tranſlator, it will be ſufficient to remark, that he has generally given, as we apprehend, the ſenſe of the Author; without confining himſelf too cloſely to the letter.

We ſhall diſmiſs the Grecian, and the Engliſh Editor, with the following extract: which may ſerve as a ſpecimen of the *manner* of the former; and of the *language* of the latter.

The ſecond Exhortation concludes thus:

'At laſt then, Oh Gentiles, come and partake of that wiſdom which cannot be objected againſt. Be inſtructed by leſſons truly divine. Learn to know the immortal King, and acknowlege not thoſe for heroes who commit ſuch rage and violence upon the people. But our heavenly King requires not of us ſtrength of body, nor comelineſs of features, or loftineſs of an high birth, but a mind that is pure, and ſhielded by holineſs: his holy word is daily directing us to holy actions, and to his holy

holy ordinances. The energy of this word reaches to the ſoul: the ſoul, as by the ſound of a trumpet, is hereby called from a ſtate of war to a ſtate of peace. Oh, that baniſher of troubleſome paſſions! Oh, holy doctrine, extinguiſher of thoſe living fires! It doth not make us poets; it conſtitutes us not philoſophers, or ſkilful rhetoricians; but by its inſtructions, from mortal it makes us immortal: from frail men it makes us gods; and from this earth tranſplants us into regions above the heavens.

'Come then; be inſtructed; be ye as I am, who once was as you are; the divinity of this word, and efficacy of the doctrine, were what laid hold on me. For as the ſkilful muſician firſt charms the dreadful ſnake from his lurking hole, then drives him away; ſo doth this word draw, from the inward receſſes of the ſoul, all the affections of ſenſe, and eſpecially covetouſneſs, that formidable root of all evils, ſuch as contentions, ſtrife, envy, emulations, wrath, and the like, which being expelled, the ſoul regains a perfect calm and tranquility; and when thus freed from thoſe chains that weighed it down, it mounts to its Creator again; it being but ſuitable, that it ſhould return to the place from whence it borrowed its original.'

Sermons on the moſt intereſting, religious, moral, and practical Subjects. By the late Reverend and Learned Mr. Kimber. Printed from his own manuſcripts. 8vo. 6s. Noon, &c.

TO theſe Sermons are prefixed a ſhort account of the Life and Writings of the Author; the ſubſtance of which it may not wholly be improper to inſert, tho' it contains nothing very intereſting, or remarkable—He was born at Wantage in Berkſhire, on December 1, 1692, and received the rudiments of a learned education from the Rev. Mr. Sloper, who was at that time Maſter of a private Grammar School in Wantage. Mr. Sloper, it is ſaid, was a very worthy man, an excellent Tutor, and had ſeveral young perſons under his care, who afterwards made a great figure in the learned world; amongſt whom was Dr. Butler, the late worthy Biſhop of Durham. Under Mr. Sloper our Author made a conſiderable progreſs in the Greek and Latin languages, in which he was much aſſiſted by Mr. Jones, Paſtor of the Baptiſt church at Wantage, who took a particular liking to him, and from whoſe converſation he received very conſiderable benefit.

Being

Being naturally of a ſerious, ſober, and virtuous diſpoſition, he turned his thoughts to the Miniſtry; and, leaving Wantage, went to London, to perfect himſelf in the languages under Profeſſor Ward of Greſham College; and in academical exerciſes under the direction of the Rev. Mr. John Eames. When he had qualified himſelf for the Miniſtry, he was very particularly patronized by the Hon. Joſhua Collet, Eſq; late Governor of Fort St. George in the Eaſt-Indies, to whoſe converſation, and that of his brother Mr. Samuel Collet, he owed, in a great meaſure, his eſtabliſhment in thoſe generous ſentiments of univerſal love and charity, that enmity to impoſition and perſecution in matters of ſpeculation, which governed him throughout the remainder of his life.

At the age of twenty-five, before he had got any ſettlement in the world, he married; and not meeting with the encouragement he expected as a Miniſter, he very early engaged in the buſineſs of a Writer, and one of his firſt productions was the Life of Oliver Cromwell, in octavo, printed for Brotherton and Cox. Soon after, he was concerned with Meſſrs. Bailey, Hodges, and Ridpath, in compiling a Hiſtory of England, in four volumes in octavo; the third and fourth volumes of which were entirely his. A few years afterwards, he wrote the Life of Biſhop Beveridge, which is prefixed to the folio edition of his Works, of which he was the Editor.

In the year 1724, he was called, in conjunction with Mr. Samuel Acton, to the paſtoral charge of Namptwich in Cheſhire: but as his going thither was preceeded by an attempt to fetter his mind with ſubſcriptions to, and impoſitions of Articles of Faith, ſo his life was rendered very uneaſy, by the untoward and perverſe ſpirits of ſome of the principal perſons of his congregation; who, on account of a difference of opinion in regard to ſome diſputed points, and other ſuch weighty reaſons, withdrew their promiſed ſubſcriptions from him, which reduced his ſallary to ſuch a ſcanty pittance, that being unable to ſupport his family, he was obliged to leave them at the latter end of the year 1727.

Here we cannot help compaſſionating the hard fate of many worthy Diſſenting Miniſters; whoſe lives are often rendered extremely uncomfortable by their people's blind and furious zeal for incomprehenſible articles of faith, their inflexible ſtiffneſs, their narrow ſentiments, and the diſcouragement they frequently give to a free and ingenuous enquiry into the ſenſe of Scripture. When a Miniſter depends entirely on his congregation for his ſupport, he muſt be under ſtrong temptations to prevarication and hypocriſy, to diſguiſe and conceal his ſentiments, (and that too upon points, perhaps,

of great importance to the honour of Chriſtianity, and the intereſts of Truth) if by an open declaration of them he is in danger of expoſing himſelf to want and poverty. It is certainly incumbent, therefore, upon every conſiſtent Proteſtant, every friend to Truth and Chriſtianity, to encourage and promote a ſpirit of free enquiry, of openneſs, candour, and mutual forbearance; and to check and diſcourage that ſpirit of bigotry, that narrow attachment to party-ſchemes and diſtinctions, which has occaſioned ſuch complicated miſchief in the chriſtian world: and expoſed the beſt of cauſes to the contempt and ridicule of the worſt of men.—But to return to our Author.

Upon his return to London, he officiated, as morning Preacher, or aſſiſtant, to Dr. John Kinch, in Old Artillery-lane, and, occaſionally, at Pinner's Hall, for Dr. Hunt; and was alſo engaged in correcting the preſs for Mr. John Darby, and others. At the ſame time he compiled a periodical pamphlet, called the Monthly Chronicle, which ſubſiſted from January 1728, to May 1732, and was then dropped. In part of this period, he was likewiſe concerned with Mr. Drew of the Union Fire-Office, as his aſſiſtant, and ſupported theſe various labours with a quiet and even temper, and a chearful mind, tho' viſited with a very ſore affliction in his wife's being deprived of her reaſon; a misfortune, which, he ſometimes hinted, was brought on, by her deep ſenſe of the ill treatment he had met with at Nampt-witch. This malady had two ſeveral ſtages; for ſome years it diſplayed itſelf in ravings and fury, and then ſunk into an indolent kind of frenzy, which continued all the reſt of her life. As they had been a remarkable happy couple, this misfortune lay very heavy upon him, and put him to various and great expences: but a patient ſubmiſſion to, and firm truſt in Providence, enabled him to bear a ſad complication of diſtreſſes, like a Man, and a Chriſtian. His love for her ſeemed rather increſed by this dreadful viſitation; and, after twenty years and upwards, that ſhe continued thus afflicted, her death gave him the moſt poignant ſorrow he ever felt, and, in ſome meaſure, contributed to haſten his own.

During the remainder of his life, our Author was chiefly ſupported by his firm and faithful friend Mr. Charles Akers*. In the year 1740, he wrote the reign of his preſent Majeſty, which is added to the laſt edition of Howell's Medulla Hiſt. Angl. and ſoon afterwards an abridgment of the Hiſtory of England, in one volume octavo, printed in 1745, for Mr. Thomas Cox.

Theſe are the principal things that are mentioned in the account of the Life and Writings of our Author: as to the Sermons, we ſhall only ſay, that they are plain, ſerious, practical

* An eminent Printer in London.

Diſcourſes,

Diſcourſes, principally on the following ſubjects—*the fear and love of God: the great duties of Chriſtianity: the nature and obligation of Prayer: the lovelineſs and efficacy of Charity, Humility, and Meekneſs: the fruits of the Spirit: Chriſt the Light of the World: Salvation, wrought by the Grace of God: and the Vanity and Uncertainty of human Life.*

Sermons on the following Subjects: the Care of the Soul, the one Thing needful; the Benefit and Importance of Chriſt's Reſurrection; the Hiſtory of Chriſt's Aſcention; the Truth and Certainty of Chriſt's Aſcenſion, the Ends and Deſigns of it, and the Uſes to be made of it; Chriſt's Power in raiſing the Dead; Faith without Works ineffectual to Salvation; on ſecret Prayer; on family Prayer; on public Worſhip, and public Inſtruction. By the late Reverend and Learned Mr. Joſeph Morris. 8vo. 6s. Whiſton, Noon, &c.

TO theſe Sermons are prefixed ſome Memoirs of the Author's Life, by Mr. Burroughs; by which it appears, that he was born at Badbey, near Daventry, in the county of Northampton, about the year 1685; the exact time not certainly known. His father was a diſſenting Miniſter, of the Baptiſt denomination, in the ſame county; the ſon was in his early years taken notice of, for his piety and good genius: and having made a conſiderable progreſs in grammatical learning, and academical ſtudies, had a propoſal made to him, of being ſent to one of our Univerſities, for farther improvement. But declining this offer, he was by ſome generous Patrons, the family of the Wrights, of Daventry, ſent over into Holland; and ſtudied ſome years at Amſterdam, under the direction of the celebrated Le Clerc, and Limborch. He was a very cloſe ſtudent, and took in a large compaſs of knowlege: but his chief care was to be intimately acquainted with the holy Scriptures; for which purpoſe he gained a conſiderable ſkill in the languages in which they were firſt written, and then applied himſelf to the ſtudy of the originals, and of the learned Commentators upon them. This critical knowlege of the Scriptures enabled him to defend them againſt the falſe and injurious reflections of the enemies of revelation, who often raſhly reproach what they never took the pains to underſtand, or fairly to examine.

He was well read in univerſal Hiſtory, and eſpecially that part of it which relates to eccleſiaſtical affairs, and had likewiſe carefully peruſed and conſidered the ancient Apologiſts fo Chriſ-

tianity, by which means he was further qualified to anſwer the cavils raiſed againſt it by its adverſaries, both ancient and modern; the latter of whom often content themſelves with little more than barely reviving thoſe objections, which have been formerly made, and fully anſwered. He was likewiſe well acquainted with the controverſies which Chriſtians have unhappily raiſed among themſelves. But tho' he was a zealous advocate for what he believed to be the truth, he choſe rather to employ his Miniſtry in practical diſcourſes, than upon ſubjects of diſputation; and even when engaged in controverſy, was careful to lay down the reaſons of his own opinion, without thoſe cenſorious reflections upon any who differed from him, which are too often practiſed in religious diſputes.

After his return from Holland, having exerciſed his Miniſtry for a few years in Northamptonſhire, and the neighbouring counties, he went to London, and was, in the year 1724, called and ordained to the paſtoral care of the Baptiſt Church, at Glaſhouſe Yard, in Goſwell-ſtreet; in conjunction with the Reverend Mr. Thomas Kerby; with whom he lived in very great friendſhip and eſteem.

As to his private character, we are told, that he particularly excelled in the virtues of humility and patience, and delighted in doing good, after the example of his great Lord and Maſter. His ſolid judgment, Mr. Burroughs ſays, and extenſive compaſs of learning, would doubtleſs have rendered him more conſpicuous and regarded, had they not been obſerved and concealed by his too great backwardneſs to ſhew them. This diffidence of himſelf was the occaſion of leſſening his eſteem in the minds of ſome who were ſtrangers to his real merits, and of preventing the reſpect which would otherwiſe have been paid him; as it is well known, how the generality of mankind form their judgment both of perſons and things chiefly from outward appearances. Theſe things, however, very little affected him; ſo that he bore them with a ſteady and becoming patience.

His great delight in doing good appeared in his unwearied labours to procure and convey needful ſupplies to poor Miniſters in the country, and to the widows and orphans of thoſe who were deceaſed; to obtain proper books for ſtudents, as well as exhibitions for their ſupport; and to get relief for diſtreſſed families, whether of Miniſters or others. In works of this nature he employed himſelf with a zeal and diligence, which ſometimes turned to his own diſadvantage. Nor did the narrowneſs of his income prevent him from contributing to the kind and charitable purpoſes which he recommended to his friends. His benevolent heart was in the work: and, therefore, he willingly

ingly bore with ſtraits and difficulties to carry it on. His death happened on the 22d of June, 1755, and was occaſioned by a great cold, which was neglected till it had got too faſt hold of him to be ſhaken off.

In regard to the Sermons, Mr. Burroughs tells us, that they were probably intended by the Author for the preſs; being, with ſome few others, placed ſeparate from a much larger number; and great part of them tranſcribed by him within a few years paſt. Their principal merit conſiſts in their being plain, candid, ſerious diſcourſes, containing nothing very animated or ſtriking, indeed, but bearing upon them very evident traces of great goodneſs of heart; of a mind free from bigotry, and a narrow attachment to party-ſchemes and diſtinctions; and well diſpoſed towards the intereſts of free and ingenuous enquiry.

A Journey into England, by Paul Hentzner, *in the Year* 1598. 12mo. Printed at Strawberry-Hill *.

THIS entertaining performance, which is part of the itinerary of Hentznerus, is elegantly printed on a fine paper, the original Latin on one page, and on the oppoſite, the Engliſh tranſlation; it is dedicated to the Preſident, Council, and Fellows of the Society of Antiquaries. In an Advertiſement prefixed to the work, the Editor gives the following account of it.

'Dr. Birch, in his Summary of Sir Thomas Edmondes's State-papers, has publiſhed a ſhort extract from the following obſolete Author, which, for the elegance of the Latin, and the remarkable deſcription of Queen Elizabeth, has been deſervedly admired: her beſt portraits ſcarcely exhibit a more lively image.

'The original work, of which, perhaps, there are not above four or five copies in England, is an itinerary through Germany, England, France, and Italy, performed by Hentzner, a travelling Tutor to a young German Nobleman. That Dr. Birch has extracted the moſt intereſting paſſage, in the whole book, is certain: yet it records ſome circumſtances and cuſtoms, not unworthy the notice of an Engliſh Antiquarian, and which are mentioned no where elſe. For theſe reaſons, I flatter myſelf, that a publication of the part relating to our own country, might not be an unacceptable preſent to perſons of curioſity. The tranſlation was the production of the idle hours of another Gentleman.

* This book is not ſold by the bookſellers: a few copies only being printed, by a gentleman of fortune, to diſtribute among his friends.

'The Author ſeems to have had that laborious and indiſcriminate paſſion for *ſeeing*, which is remarked in his countrymen; and as his Tranſlator obſerved, enjoyed as much the doubtful head, of a more doubtful Saint in pickle, as any upon the ſhoulders of the beſt Grecian ſtatue. Fortunately ſo memorable a perſonage as Queen Elizabeth, happened to fall under his notice.—Ten years later, he would have been as accurate in painting Anne of Denmark!

'The exceſs of reſpectful ceremonial uſed at decking her Majeſty's table, tho' not in her preſence, and the kind of adoration and genuflection paid to her perſon, approached to Eaſtern homage. When we obſerve ſuch worſhip offered to an old woman, with bare neck, black teeth, and falſe red hair, it makes one ſmile; but makes one reflect what maſculine ſenſe was couched under thoſe weakneſſes, and which could command ſuch awe from a nation like England!

'Not to anticipate the entertainment of the Reader, I ſhall make but one more reflection. We are apt to think that Sir William Temple, and King William, were, in a manner, the introducers of gardening into England: by the deſcription of Lord Burleigh's gardens at Theobalds, and of thoſe at Nonſuch, we find, that the magnificent, tho' falſe, taſte, was known here as early as the reigns of Henry VIII, and his daughter. There is ſcarce an unnatural and ſumptuous impropriety at Verſailles, which we do not find in Hentzner's deſcription of the gardens above-mentioned.

'With regard to the orthography of proper names, though corrected in the tranſlation, I have left them in the original as I found them.—Accuracy, in that particular, was not the Author's merit: it is a merit peculiar to Engliſhmen: the French are negligent of it to an affectation; yet the Author of *Les Melanges Hiſtoriques* complains, that other nations corrupt French names! He himſelf gives ſome Engliſh ones, in pages 247, 248, which it is impoſſible to decypher. Baſſompierre calls York-houſe, Jorchaux; and Kenſington, Inhimthort. As a Soldier and Ambaſſador, he was not obliged to know the names of houſes; when he turned Author, there was no excuſe for not being intelligible. Even Voltaire, who writes the language ſo well, is careleſs in our titles. In England, it is the deſect of a ſervant to blunder in proper names. It is one of thoſe ſilly pretenſions to politeneſs, which nations that affect a ſuperiority, have always cultivated.—For in all affectations defects are merits. The Readers of Hiſtory love certainty: it is a pity the Writers do not. What confuſion would it have ſaved, if it had not been the cuſtom of the Jews to call every Darius

xes and Artaxerxes, Ahaſuerus! It were to be wiſhed, that all nations would be content to uſe the appellations which people, or reſpective countries have choſen for themſelves. Proper names ought never to be tortured to any particular idiom. What a ridiculous compoſition is Aulugel! Who can conceive that Meylandt, ſignifies Milan; or Leghorn, Livorno? When one is miſled by a proper name, the only uſe of which is to direct, one feels, like the countryman, who complained, *That the houſes hindered him from ſeeing Paris.*—The thing becomes an obſtruction to itſelf.'

We ſhall now entertain our Readers with our Author's deſcription of Queen Elizabeth; it is follows.

'——We arrived next at the royal palace at Greenwich, reported to have been originally built by Humphry Duke of Glouceſter, and to have received very magnificent additions from Henry VII. It was here Elizabeth, the preſent Queen, was born, and here ſhe generally reſides; particularly in ſummer, for the delightfulneſs of its ſituation. We were admitted by an order Mr. Rogers had procured from the Lord Chamberlain, into the preſence-chamber, hung with rich tapeſtry, and the floor after the Engliſh faſhion, ſtrewed with hay, through which the Queen paſſes in her way to chapel: at the door ſtood a Gentleman dreſſed in velvet, with a gold chain, whoſe office was to introduce to the Queen any perſon of diſtinction, that came to wait on her: it was Sunday, when there is uſually the greateſt attendance of Nobility. In the ſame hall were the Archbiſhop of Canterbury, the Biſhop of London, a great number of Counſellors of State, Officers of the Crown, and Gentlemen, who waited the Queen's coming out; which ſhe did from her own apartment, when it was time to go to prayers, attended in the following manner:

'Firſt went Gentlemen, Barons, Earls, Knights of the Garter, all richly dreſſed, and bare headed; next came the Chancellor, bearing the ſeals in a red ſilk purſe, between two; one of which carried the royal ſceptre, the other the ſword of ſtate, in a red ſcabbard ſtudded with golden fleurs de lis, the point upwards: next came the Queen, in the ſixty-fifth year of her age, as we are told, very majeſtic; her face oblong, fair, but wrinkled; her eyes ſmall, yet black and pleaſant; a noſe a little hooked; her lips narrow, and her teeth black; (a defect the Engliſh ſeem ſubject to, from their too great uſe of ſugar) ſhe had in her ears two pearls, with very rich drops; ſhe wore falſe hair, and that red; upon her head ſhe had a ſmall crown, reported to be made of ſome of the gold of the celebrated Luneburg table: her boſom was uncovered, as all the

Engliſh Ladies have it till they marry; and ſhe had on a neck-lace of exceeding fine jewels; her hands were ſmall, her fingers long, and her ſtature neither tall nor low; her air was ſtately, her manner of ſpeaking mild and obliging. That day ſhe was dreſſed in white ſilk, bordered with pearls of the ſize of beans; and over it a mantle of black ſilk, ſhot with ſilver-threads; her train was very long, the end of it borne by a Marchioneſs; inſtead of a chain ſhe had an oblong collar of gold and jewels. As ſhe went along in all this ſtate and magnificence, ſhe ſpoke very graciouſly, firſt to one, then to another, whether foreign Miniſters, or thoſe who attended for different reaſons, in Engliſh, French, and Italian; for, beſides being well ſkilled in Greek, Latin, and the languages I have mentioned, ſhe is miſtreſs of Spaniſh, Scotch, and Dutch: whoever ſpeaks to her it is kneeling; now and then ſhe raiſes ſome with her hand. While we were there, W. Slawata, a Bohemian Baron, had letters to preſent to her; and ſhe, after pulling off her glove, gave him her right hand to kiſs, ſparkling with rings and jewels, a mark of particular favour: wherever ſhe turned her face, as ſhe was going along, every body fell down on their knees. The Ladies of the Court followed next to her, very handſome and well ſhaped, and, for the moſt part, dreſſed in white; ſhe was guarded on each ſide by the Gentlemen Penſioners, fifty in number, with gilt battle-axes: in the anti-chapel next the hall where we were, petitions were preſented to her, and ſhe received them moſt graciouſly, which occaſioned the acclamation of *Long live Queen Elizabeth!* She anſwered it with, *I thank you my good people.* In the chapel was excellent muſic; as ſoon as it, and the ſervice was over, which ſcarce exceeded half an hour, the Queen returned in the ſame ſtate and order, and prepared to go to dinner. But while ſhe was ſtill at prayers, we ſaw her table ſet out with the following ſolemnity: a Gentleman entered the room bearing a rod, and along with him another who had a table-cloth, which, after they had both kneeled three times, with the utmoſt veneration, he ſpread upon the table; and, after kneeling again, they both retired. Then came two others, one with the rod again, the other with a ſalt-ſeller, a plate, and bread; when they had kneeled, as the others had done, and placed what was brought upon the table, they too retired with the ſame ceremonies performed by the firſt. At laſt came an unmarried Lady, (we were told ſhe was a Counteſs) and along with her a married one, bearing a taſting knife; the former was dreſſed in white ſilk, who, when ſhe had proſtrated herſelf three times, in the moſt graceful manner approached the table, rubbed the plates with bread and ſalt, with as much awe as if the Queen had been preſent: when they had waited there a little while, the Yeomen of the Guard entered, bare headed, cloathed in ſcarlet,

with a golden rose upon their backs, bringing in at each turn a course of twenty-four dishes, served in plate, most of them gilt; these dishes were received by a Gentleman in the same order they were brought, and placed upon the table, while the Lady-taster gave to each of the guard a mouthful to eat, of the particular dish he had brought, for fear of any poison. During the time that this guard, which consists of the tallest and stoutest men that can be found in all England, being carefully selected for this service, were bringing dinner, twelve trumpets, and two kettle-drums, made the hall ring for half an hour together. At the end of all this ceremonial a number of unmarried Ladies appeared, who with particular solemnity lifted the meat off the table, and conveyed it into the Queen's inner and more private chamber, where after she had chosen for herself, the rest goes to the Ladies of the Court.

'The Queen dines and sups alone with very few attendants; and it is very seldom that any body, foreigner or native, is admitted at that time, and then only at the intercession of somebody in power.'

We shall now lay before our Readers Hentzner's description of Lord Burleigh's Gardens.

'We left London (says he) in a coach, in order to see the remarkable places in its neighbourhood. The first was Theobalds, belonging to Lord Burleigh, the Treasurer. In the gallery was painted the genealogy of the Kings of England; from this place one goes into the garden, encompassed with a ditch full of water, large enough for one to have the pleasure of going in a boat, and rowing between the shrubs; here are great variety of trees and plants; labyrinths made with a great deal of labour; a jet d'eau, with its bason of white marble; and columns and pyramids of wood and other materials, up and down the garden: after seeing these we were led by the gardener into the summer-house, in the lower part of which, built semicircularly, are the twelve Roman Emperors in white marble, and a table of touchstone; the upper part of it is set round with cisterns of lead, into which the water is conveyed through pipes, so that fish may be kept in them, and in summer time they are very convenient for bathing; in another room for entertainment very near this, and joined to it by a little bridge, was an oval table of red marble. We were not admitted to see the apartments of this palace, there being no body to shew it, as the family was in town, attending the funeral of their Lord.'

In his description of Nonsuch he gives the following account of the gardens.

'In

'In the pleaſure and artificial gardens are many columns and pyramids of marble; two fountains that ſpout water, one round the other, like a pyramid, upon which are perched ſmall birds, that ſtream water out of their bills: in the grove of Diana is a very agreeable fountain, with Actæon turned into a ſtag, as he was ſprinkled by the Goddeſs and her Nymphs, with inſcriptions. There is beſides another pyramid of marble, full of concealed pipes, which ſpirt upon all that come within their reach.'

The account which Hentzner gives of the manners of the Engliſh, will not, we hope, be diſagreeable to our Readers; with it we ſhall conclude this article.

'The Engliſh are ſerious, like the Germans, lovers of ſhew; liking to be followed wherever they go by whole troops of ſervants, who wear their maſters arms in ſilver, faſtened to their left arm, a ridicule they deſervedly lay under: they excel in dancing and muſic, for they are active and lively, though of a thicker make than the French; they cut their hair cloſe on the middle of the head, letting it grow on either ſide; they are good ſailors, and better pirates; cunning, treacherous, and thieviſh; above three hundred are ſaid to be hanged annually at London; beheading with them is leſs infamous than hanging; they give the wall as the place of honour; hawking is the general ſport of the Gentry; they are more polite in eating than the French, devouring leſs bread, but more meat, which they roaſt in perfection; they put a great deal of ſugar in their drink; their beds are covered with tapeſtry, even thoſe of farmers; they are often moleſted with the ſcurvy, ſaid to have firſt crept into England with the Norman conqueſt; their houſes are commonly of two ſtories, except in London, where they are of three and four, though but ſeldom of four; they are built of wood, thoſe of the richer ſort with bricks, their roofs are low, and where the owner has money, covered with lead.

'They are powerful in the field, ſucceſsful againſt their enemies, impatient of any thing like ſlavery; vaſtly fond of great noiſes that fill the ear, ſuch as the firing of cannon, drums, and the ringing of bells, ſo that it is common for a number of them, that have got a glaſs in their heads, to go up into ſome belfry, and ring the bells for hours together, for the ſake of exerciſe. If they ſee a foreigner, very well made, or particularly handhandſome, they will ſay, *It is a pity he is not an* ENGLISHMAN.'

Upon the whole, we imagine the modern Engliſh will not think themſelves much obliged to Mr. Hentzner for this account of their great grand-fathers.

Mr.

Mr. Hervey's Contemplations on a Flower-Garden, done into Blank Verſe, (after the Manner of Dr. Young). By T. Newcomb, *M. A.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Rivington and Fletcher.

THE pleaſure we found in the peruſal of Mr. Newcomb's poetical verſion of Mr. Hervey's Contemplations on the Night*, made us ſincerely deſire, that this ingenious Gentleman would oblige the world with a Tranſlation of the remaining diviſions of the Night-Thoughts: and we have now the ſatisfaction to find, that, in part, our wiſhes are gratified by the publication of the Flower-Garden. The gaiety of this ſubject is a proper contraſt to the gloom of the former; and, poſſibly, it was with deſign that they were publiſhed in this order, with a view to relieve the Reader, by ſo agreeable a tranſition. In the hands of a Poet, either topic is ſuſceptible of high colouring; but from the manner in which our elegant Tranſlator has treated the latter, we can eaſily ſee that he was not only enamoured with, but a thorough maſter of, his ſubject. This has enabled him to ſurpaſs his original, which, tho' beautiful in itſelf, is here rendered more ſo, by ſome maſterly additions, and a delicate harmony of numbers. This the following quotations will ſufficiently evince.

Yon plant†, which to the ſouth its head reclines,
Has beauties which the muſe has left unſung:
Juſt like the fruitful, though the feeble, vine
She ſpreads a numerous family around
Of helpleſs boughs, unable to ſuſtain
Their weight unaided by a ſunny wall.
As yet the tender ſhoots have hardly gem'd
Their infant bloſſoms, cloſely all conceal'd,
Till time has ripen'd their rich varied bloom,
And open'd their gay luſtre to the day.
Amidſt the beauteous families that ſhine
In ſunny robes, and ſip the ſilver dew,
That lordly flower the nobleſt import wears,
And with a more majeſtic preſence glows;
If paſſing in review—this regent claims
The prize of grandeur, and the firſt renown,
Due when the ſun expands its ample round
And ſtuds its various leaves with ſparks of gold.

One ſubject‡ yet that beautifies this ſcene,
And yet unprais'd, demands the Muſe's quill:
So delicate her ſtructure, ſoft her frame,
And conſtitution, that ſhe dreads to ſhew

* See Review for April, 1757.

† The Paſſion flower. ‡ The Senſitive Plant.

(Till

(Till genial ſprings have warm'd the balmy air)
Her fearful head, midſt winter ſuns unveil'd;
Chuſing to live, when froſts benumb the ſkies,
Cloſe cloiſter'd up within the green-houſe cells.
Of all her kindred ſpecies one ſhe claims,
One quality peculiarly her own,
Perceptive life partaking; joining thus
The ſenſitive and vegetative powers,
Herſelf the chain connecting both in one.
Strangers, her myſtic nature who explore,
Would almoſt be inclin'd to think her leaves
With ſome degree of caution were endow'd:
If touch'd they tremble, take the firſt alarm,
Conſcious of danger, while her fibres grow
Contracted in a moment, and in dread
Of violence, from your finger's touch withdraw,
Shrinking her head precipitate, in fear
Of feeling her pure innocence betray'd.
Perhaps her beauteous aſpect may be ſoil'd,
The niceneſs of her texture diſcompos'd,
By man's familiar touch—ſhe therefore ſtrives,
Like a coy virgin, with a tim'rous care,
To keep at diſtance, far from freedom's ſnares,
Improper oft—too oft pernicious found.

A noble grand ſimplicity beſtows
Its merits on the lilly's virgin robe;
The gay and gaudy colours, richly ſpread
In varied tints, augment the tulip's fame;
See in what mix'd profuſion, ſplendid dyes,
Her cups are beautify'd; her glowing ſtreaks
Strongly contracted, to each other lend
A fairer radiance, a more lively bloom!
How lately this each border's youthful pride,
The reigning toaſt, that pleaſingly adorn'd
The ſpring's delightful ſeaſon with its bloom.
A while it ſhines in all the glittering dyes
That paint the rainbow's arch amidſt a ſhow'r,
Tranſient and fair, like that it ſpreads a while
Its beauteous plumage—but alas! how ſoon
Are all its glories vaniſh'd, each gay ſtripe
How quickly loſt, and ſplendid now no more,
Each radiant beauty blended with the ſhade.

Graceful her ſhape, each opening feature fair,
Still to augment her fame the budding roſe
Breaths from her balmy breaſt a rich perfume:
To this gay ſtranger often we repeat
Our morning viſits, and as oft at eve,
Ne'er wearied with the ſweets, its leaves diffuſe:
A fragrance ſo reviving, rich, and pure,
Tranſpiring from its odorous buds, that all

Cover

Covet its cloſe acquaintance where it blooms.
How oft have I beheld th' accompliſh'd fair,
The gay Clariſſa, trembling at her eye,
For whom ſo many penſive lovers bleed,
Careſſing fondly on her raptur'd breaſt
This fav'rite flower, that boſom choſe its ſeat
Which innocence and virtue make their home,
Whoſe rival ſoftneſs, and unſpotted white
Vies with the falling ſnow: yet to increaſe
Her charms, though faireſt ſhe among the fair
Contracts more beauty from the damaſk'd roſe,
More ſweetneſs from the odours it exhales.
But ah! this lovely darling of the fair
Its balm and native beauties muſt reſign,
Hanging how ſoon neglected on its ſtem,
Or dropping its gay leaves upon the ground.
Pity, alas! our wiſhes want a power
To give this darling bud a longer ſtay;
Blooming one vernal month, the next to fade:
It pays us a ſhort viſit, in the morn
Expands its glories, wither'd ere the noon.
This moment lovely, when the ſun has fleet'd
A few ſwift journies more along the ſky,
The verdant ſcene which entertains the eye,
Each ſenſe with each delight, ſhall then appear
A ragged deſert, a rude waſteful wild,
A nurſery of weeds inſtead of flowers.

The Hiſtory and Antiquities of Scotland, from the earlieſt account of time, to the death of James the Firſt, anno 1437. *By* William Maitland, *F. R. S. And from that period to the acceſſion of James the Sixth to the crown of England, anno* 1603, *by another Hand. The whole compiled from the moſt authentic vouchers. In two volumes.* Folio, 2 l. 2 s. Millar.

THE Public being already acquainted with Mr. Maitland as an hiſtorian, it is the leſs needful to enlarge upon his qualifications as ſuch. The performance now before us is a laborious undertaking; and appears to be executed with no leſs care, than was requiſite for a work of ſo extenſive a nature. It is far from an eaſy taſk to ſcrutinize old Authors, who wrote, perhaps, with little knowlege, and dubious integrity; and from their various relations, obſcured by length of time, to furniſh ſuch annals of a country, as, by their probability and connection, ſhall warrant and evince their authenticity.

If

If Mr. Maitland has been a faithful compiler, the readers of the Scottiſh hiſtory, will, we are perſuaded, excuſe him if he is not a Voltaire, or even a Hume, in his ſtyle; eſpecially if they reflect, that though elegance of diction is an *advantage*, it is not an *eſſential*.

This hiſtory, as the title intimates, is continued by another Hand, from James the Firſt to the acceſſion of James the Sixth to the ſovereignty over the whole iſland: and as Mr. Maitland firſt ſettled the plan, and proceeded through the more difficult parts of the undertaking, it was natural for the gentleman who began where he left off, at the end of the firſt volume, to follow his manner, that the whole hiſtory might appear, in ſome meaſure, uniform.

The plan of this hiſtory is delineated in the following quotation from the preface, which begins thus:

'A General Hiſtory of Scotland is here offered to the Public, upon a plan very different from any hitherto publiſhed.

'Although no nation can boaſt of more elegant hiſtorians than the Scottiſh, yet is no hiſtory more diſgraced with fable, or leſs chronological than theirs. The writers of that kingdom have not only not conſulted the moſt authentic hiſtories of the nations with whom they were connected, but have even too ſupinely neglected their own archives: and if we conſider how ſoon parties prevailed in Scotland, firſt, from a difference in political ſentiments, and afterwards from a diſagreement in modes of worſhip; and laſtly, if we reflect on the Ariſtocratical influence the great families had over that people: it is eaſy to conceive how jarring muſt be the accounts of Scottiſh hiſtorians, how diſſimilar the characters of the perſons they deſcribe, and of conſequence how very difficult their taſk, who would write a real hiſtory of Scotland.

'Yet as no people ever behaved better in the field than the Scots: as there is no underſtanding the hiſtories of England and of France, without being maſters of the Scottiſh: as no ſtory affords a greater variety of important inſtructions, and none is more calculated to excite admiration; the Authors chearfully undertook to cleanſe the Augean ſtable, and have ſpared no pains to bring light from darkneſs, and order from confuſion.

'It muſt be confeſſed, that to aſcertain the origin of an antient people, is not only a difficult, but often an impracticable labour. Hence it is the leſs to be wondered at, that the original of the Scottiſh nation is ſo dubious; ſome Antiquaries deriving them from Greece, Egypt, Spain, and Ireland, while others as confidently bring them from Scythia, &c. &c. But the

the falſity of all thoſe opinions is fully refuted, in the firſt and miſcellaneous part of this work; where it is ſhewn, by the analogy of language, a proof perhaps more certain than that of hiſtorical authority, that the whole of this iſland was firſt peopled from Gaul; that the Caledonians, who ſo bravely maintained their ground againſt the Romans, were Celtæ; that Scots and Picts were names impoſed upon the Celtæ by the Romans, from particular circumſtances; and laſtly, that the preſent inhabitants of the north and weſt of Scotland, are the immediate deſcendants of the Celtæ.

'Nor is the origin alone of an antient people involved in obſcurity, their firſt actions are always uncertain: for though theſe have ever in them ſomething wildly noble, and are well worth the commemorating, hiſtoriographers are not to be expected in the caves of indigence, the ſheds of ignorance, and the tents of invaſion. Employed in ſearching out the neceſſaries of life, in ſecuring themſelves from the weather, and monſters of the wood, in invading their neighbours, or in repelling their attacks; what leiſure, what opportunity, have ſavage nations to write? And though the love of fame is a natural paſſion, and he who does any thing uncommon, is not willing that its memory ſhould periſh; yet the oral being the only vehicle of tranſmiſſion, ſelf-love aggravates, and after-relators perceiving the proneneſs of mankind to the marvelous, ſtill more and more magnify, till fact aſſumes another name, and truth is loſt in the wonders of romance.

'But are we not told, that the dawnings of hiſtorical poetry are to be found among the moſt ſavage tribes? And in particular, is it not aſſerted, that firſt the Druids, and then the bards and Sannachies, celebrated the worthies of the firſt Scots? This is granted, but then their praiſes however, as they were not written, were ſubject to all the inconveniences of oral tradition. Beſides, poetry affecting the wonderful, every action muſt have been diſguiſed, in proportion to the fancy of the panegyriſt.

'To the bards and Sannachies ſucceeded the monks; who from the hiſtorical poems of the former, copied the actions of our anceſtors. Theſe holy drones were, indeed, not much led aſtray by imagination, but then they ſeemed to have poſſeſſed no great powers of either underſtanding or judgment. Under their ſuperſtitious hands legend aroſe, and things and heroes had praiſe or infamy attached to them, in proportion as they favoured the cowl, and exalted the clergy.

'Still then the ſources from which we are to draw the knowlege of the antient Scots, are corrupted; very luckily, indeed, the Greek and Roman writers afford us ſome purer draughts; yet

yet are we not too haſtily even to ſwallow theſe. We cannot ſuppoſe the Romans ſufficiently acquainted with the Caledonian manners and councils; and we have reaſon to think, that as they ſometimes concealed, and often diminiſhed, what made againſt them; ſo they always repreſented in the ſtrongeſt colours (not to ſay worſe) their own advantages. Bearing theſe things ſtill in his mind, Mr. Maitland has extracted from thoſe hiſtorians a leſs exceptionable account of the Roman tranſactions in the north, than any formerly publiſhed; for, by their aſſiſtance, &c. he has been enabled to ſhew, that the firſt race of Scots Kings, as mentioned by Fordun, and particularly by Boethius, never exiſted.

'But to give the Reader a more competent idea of this hiſtory of Scotland, it is neceſſary to obſerve, that the work is divided into two parts. In the firſt, after proving that the Celtæ, about 3860 years ago, firſt ſettled in Britain; that the Caledonians were their deſcendants; that the Scots and Picts, though reckoned different nations, were yet one and the ſame, and though reputed much leſs antient than the Caledonians, were, in fact, the Caledonians themſelves; Mr. Maitland proceeds to ſhew, that Ireland was peopled from Scotland; that the Ierne, ſo famous in Roman Authors, is part of Scotland; that the Iriſh never invaded the Roman provinces in Britain, but that the Tithica Vallis, over which they are ſaid by Gildas to have ferried for that purpoſe, is not the Iriſh ſea, as Stillingfleet, and many others believed, but the vale at preſent known by the name of the Strath of Monteith: that Caledonia was antiently called Ireland: and laſtly, he has ſhewn, that we have no proofs to induce us to believe, that any part of Ireland was ever named Scotland.

'The identity of thoſe, who ſo glorioufly maintained their independency againſt the Romans, being thus eſtabliſhed, there follows an accurate epitome of their various battles, &c. till the Romans, in the fourth century, were obliged to take leave of their provincial friends, in order to defend their own country againſt the northern invaders.

'As this diſtant period of Scots ſtory is taken from every Author who could be of ſervice, ſome capital blunders of the Scots hiſtorians therein, are detected: for inſtance, it is aſſerted by their firſt general hiſtoriographer, Fordun, (whom Boece and Buchanan, &c. have likewiſe copied) that the Scots were expelled their country by the united forces of the Romans, Britons, and Picts. This Mr. Maitland ſhews the falſity of. The ſame hiſtorians alſo aſſert, that kingly government obtained in Scotland 330 years before the incarnation; that one Fergus, the

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ſon of Ferchard, was the firſt Scottiſh monarch; and that he had thirty ſucceſſors before this expulſion. But Mr. Maitland has evidently proved, that this firſt race of Kings never exiſted, and of courſe, that the ſo much lamented expulſion is merely fabulous; that Fergus, the ſon of Erch, was the firſt Scottiſh ſovereign; and that he had the diadem conferred on him much about the time that the Romans were forced to re-embark for Italy.

'Yet as hiſtory is imperfect without a knowlege of the ſituation of the places it mentions, Ptolemy's geography of Scotland is added to this part. Antiquaries differs greatly about the modern names of the places mentioned by that Greek coſmographer. Theſe, Mr. Maitland has endeavoured to aſcertain, with all the accuracy the nature of the ſubject would admit of.

'This done, the antient Scottiſh cuſtoms, whether religious, civil, or military, are fully explained: and our Author, not content with what Gordon, Horſeley, and others, had wrote on the Roman, Gallic, and Daniſh antiquities in Scotland, made an actual, laborious, and expenſive ſurvey of moſt of them; by which he has been enabled to diſcover many miſtakes which they had made, and to ſupply ſome particulars which they had omitted. However difficult it is to aſcertain theſe matters, the greateſt foe of antiquities muſt own, that a knowlege of them is of ſome importance to the hiſtorian.

The time when gold and ſilver were firſt coined in Scotland, is next eſtabliſhed; and tables are ſubjoined of the value of Scots money in different Kings reigns, with the prices of various kinds of merchandize at divers periods.

The miſcellaneous, or firſt part of the work, concludes with a deſcription of the univerſities, archbiſhoprics, biſhoprics, monaſteries, nunneries, abbeys, priories, and hoſpitals, their founders, and revenues, being eſtabliſhed from the beſt authorities.

The hiſtorical, or ſecond part, begins with the reign of Fergus, the ſon of Erch, and exhibits, in a continued narration, the hiſtory of his ſucceſſors, till the acceſſion of James VI. to the crown of England, An. 1603.'

The above, not only delineates a ſketch of the deſign, but at the ſame time diſplays a ſpecimen of the language of the hiſtory. It cannot be expected that we ſhould attend to many particulars in ſo large a work; let it ſuffice to obſerve, that our Hiſtorians have conſulted variety of Authors, which are regiſtered very carefully, as vouchers, along the margin throughout.

As a concluſion, we ſhall give our Readers the narrative of the battle between the Earl of Douglas, and the ſons of the Earl of Northumberland, which is ſaid to be the foundation of that old epic ſong, well known by the title of *Chevy-Chace*.

'The Scotiſh army, as already hinted, having ravaged the eaſtern borders of England, to a very great degree, was commanded by James Earl Douglas, who, entering the biſhopric of Durham, committed the ſame hoſtilities there; which Piercy Earl of Northumberland receiving advice of, ſent his ſons Henry and Ralph, to intercept him on his return homewards. But Douglas being arrived at Newcaſtle upon Tyne, endeavoured, by reproachful language, to provoke the numerous garriſon to come out and fight him. Irritated at this, Henry, eldeſt ſon of the Earl of Northumberland, (through his violent diſpoſition ſirnamed Hotſpur) being therein, ſent Douglas a challenge to fight him in ſingle combat; which being readily accepted, they ſoon entered the liſts, in ſight both of the army and garriſon. In the firſt courſe Piercy was unhorſed, and Douglas, ſnatching his ſpear, with an audible voice declared, that he would carry it along with him as a trophy into Scotland. Piercy was reſcued by the garriſon. Douglas not being able to attack Newcaſtle in form, marched the day after homewards, and in a ſhort time arrived at Otterburn in Riddeſdale. Piercy concluding it would be a great diſhonour to him to have his ſpear carried into Scotland, marched with all his men to retake it; of which Douglas receiving intelligence, prepared to receive them. The battle began in the forenoon, and continued till towards the next morning, when the Scots gave ground, and Douglas was in danger of being taken. This being obſerved by the two Patricks Heburns, father and ſon, they, with the greateſt intrepidity, rallied the troops, and by a furious aſſault reſtored the fight. Thus Douglas was enabled to break the enemy, and having puſhed them too far, was ſurrounded and killed on the ſpot. This inſpired his men with freſh courage, which is unuſual on the like occaſion: they vigorouſly renewed the attack, and obtained a compleat victory. Henry Piercy, alias Hotſpur, was taken priſoner; as was his brother Ralph ſome time before. Of the Engliſh were ſlain eighteen hundred and forty, about one thouſand wounded, and one thouſand and forty taken priſoners. On the Scotiſh ſide were killed about one hundred, and two hundred taken priſoners.

The Biſhop of Durham arriving at Newcaſtle with a great reinforcement for Piercy's army, a few days after Hotſpur's departure, and not being able to overtake him, deferred his march. In the interim, being joined by a number of people from divers parts, his army was increaſed to ten thouſand men, with whom he

he ſet out next day in queſt of the Scots: who, being advertiſed of his march, prepared to receive him with vigour; of which the Biſhop receiving advice, he judged it the ſafeſt way to ſecure both himſelf and his men by a timely retreat.

The Scots having no other enemy to fear at preſent, permitted ſeven hundred priſoners to withdraw, among whom was Ralph Piercy, on their promiſe to return when called for. Many of the common ſort were diſcharged gratis; but Henry Piercy, with about four hundred of the nobility, and perſons of diſtinction, were carried priſoners to Scotland. This is the celebrated battle that was fought at Otterburn, on the 21ſt of July, anno 1338, commonly called the battle of Cheviot-chaſe, from the noted ballad of that name.

This inſtance, happening about four centuries ago, may ſerve to ſhew, by comparing the circumſtances with the ballad, what regard is due to the relations given in epic poetry reſpecting facts of more antient date.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,
For NOVEMBER, 1757.

POLITICAL.

Art. I. *Obſervations on ſome Remarks in the Monthly Review, for March, 1757, on a Pamphlet intitled,* The Independent Freeholder's Letter to the People of England, *ſhewing, That the chief Point inculcated in the ſaid Letter, and which the Reviewers think ſcarce* attainable, *viz. the calling of frequent Parliaments, might eaſily be gained by a proper Union of the People.* 8vo. 6d. Corbet.

CONcerning the expediency of new, frequent, and free Parliaments, it may be gathered from the recital of this title page, that the Reviewers, and the Gentleman, Author of this piece, have no controverſy. It was a fundamental of the conſtitution, that Parliaments ſhould be frequent and free: the ſame is aſſerted in the ſtrongeſt terms, in the national Declaration of Rights, which accompanied the tender of the Crown to the Prince and Princeſs of Orange; and what follows is the preamble of the Triennial Act paſſed in the ſixth of William and Mary. "Whereas by the antient "laws and ſtatutes of this kingdom, frequent Parliaments ought "to be held; and whereas frequent and new Parliaments tend "very much to the happy union and good agreement of the King "and People, we your Majeſty's, &c. do moſt humbly beſeech, &c. "and it is hereby declared and enacted, &c. that from henceforth

"a Parliament ſhall be holden once in three years at the leaſt." Prorogations, a ſpecies of King-craft, brought into play by Henry VIII. gave the firſt ſhock to this corner-ſtone of our ancient ſyſtem. Diſcontinuance of Parliaments, and abuſe of Parliaments, became alternately matter of national grievance afterwards; and in the year 1716, advantage was taken of the times to obtrude the ſeptennial Act on the nation. Deliverance from the ſuppoſed miſchiefs of this Act, (againſt which only four boroughs petitioned, tho' it ſo deeply affected the claims and rights of the whole community) is the point our Author labours, both in this and his former performance; and the means he recommends, are, complaints, petitions, and remonſtrances, preferred and ſupported by the joint voice of the people.—To encourage us to join in this cry, he ſpecifies ſeveral points obtained, both in England and Ireland, by the force of it; and he adds, all the ſtimulations in the power of *words* to induce his fellow-ſubjects to think and act accordingly.—But what weight is there in *words?* And if the calling of frequent Parliaments might eaſily be gained by a *proper* union of the people, how is this proper union to be gained? How few of the people will give this pamphlet a reading? How few of the people that do read it, will beſtow a ſecond thought upon it? And if it were poſſible for ten thouſand individuals to take their bias from it, how could they be brought to co-operate in one and the ſame purpoſe? In ſhort, the object deſired, appears to the Reviewer, full as unattainable this year as it did the laſt; and if he was to ſay more, he thinks the make and colour of the Times would juſtify him. The people are either not to be moved, or not to be fixed. Thoſe beſt qualified to interpoſe for the preſervation of the public, cannot be prevailed upon to interpoſe; but remain as ſo many ſpectators at the theatre, ſilently waiting the cataſtrophe, which every new incident accelerates. For the reſt, they are a quickſand, now agitated by intereſt, now by paſſion; conſiſtent never:—while, on the other hand, the B——gh-ho—ers only tumultuate till they agree in the choice of a proper P-y M—r. After which the Macedonian phalanx was not more compact, or more irreſiſtable. Acting then for themſelves in the name of the nation, (the thing laid to their charge at leaſt) and in poſſeſſion of all the powers requiſite for their own purpoſes, what room is there to hope, that they can be either writ, or talked, or clamoured up to ſuch a pitch of ſelf-denial, as ſhould induce them to make a ſacrifice of themſelves to the public? And unleſs they could be ſo induced, might we not *cry* and *curſe* till our hearts ached (not having the ark of God with us) before we ſhould ſee the citadel of Corruption, like Jericho, fall to the ground.

Art. 2. *The Proſperity of Britain, proved from the Degeneracy of its People. A Letter to the Reverend Dr. Brown on his Eſtimate of Manners. With ſome Thoughts on his Anſwerer in the Real Character.* 8vo. 1s. Baldwin.

This piece appears to be the offspring of a flighty imagination. The Writer affects to ridicule the Effeminacy of the Age, in a ſtrain

ſtrain of irony which he is ſcarce able to ſupport through two pages in ſucceſſion.

In the opening, this Triffler attempts to be ſyllogiſtical. You muſt grant, ſays he, the following plain poſtulatum.

'That character of a people is the moſt advantageous to a State, under the influence of which the people are moſt happy.

'This is ſelf-evident: and this granted, the whole of my deduction follows of conſequence; and is proved under theſe three propoſitions.

'1. That Wiſdom and Virtue are neceſſary to the proſperity of a State.

'2. That all wiſe and good men have aſſerted this neceſſity.

'3. That the People of England have no Wiſdom or Virtue.

'From theſe it is evident, that the people of England owe their *proſperity* to ſome ſuperior quality.'——

But, with due deference to this extraordinary Logician, theſe propoſitions warrant a very different concluſion: for if Wiſdom and Virtue are *neceſſary* to the Proſperity of a State, and if the People of England have no Wiſdom or Virtue, conſequently they can enjoy *no* Proſperity: which undermines the very foundation on which he has erected his airy ſuperſtructure.

It muſt be allowed, however, that there are here and there ſome lively ſallies of fancy, of which the Reader may ſee a ſpecimen in the following extract.

'What is proſperity but wealth? And are the moſt virtuous of mankind the richeſt? It is ſtrange men do not in any courſe of life perceive; that nothing ſtands ſo much in the way of getting riches as virtue; nor was there ever an inſtance of a man who gave the preference to one that poſſeſſed the other. There is ſomething abſurd, even to ridicule, in the vehemence with which the threadbare Curate preaches the utility of virtue, and aſſerts in his darned caſſock the certain proſperity that attends it. Himſelf is probably an exception to his doctrine. Virtues that would do honour to a mitre are buried under his brown hat; and his Rector, whoſe proſperity he cannot but envy, has purchaſed the cure with a covenant of immediate reſignation.

'Let the Preacher bluſh to read this: unleſs beggary be proſperity, and ſimony be virtue, he has vented falſehood from the pulpit.'

We do not think, however, that this is either a time or a ſubject proper for the diſplay of ſuch idle levity as runs through this performance. And we recommend it to the Author, never more to deal in irony, till he has learned the proper uſe of it. Irony ought only to be employed in expoſing baſe and unworthy principles; but the Curate, preaching proſperity as the conſequence of virtue, is not a proper object for its ridicule.

It is no wonder, however, that a Writer who ſeems to be an utter ſtranger to any kind of regular ſyſtem, ſhould endeavour to render other people's notions as unſettled as his own.

Art. 3. *Lottery Schemes in general, calculated to raiſe any Sums of Money, without enhancing the Public Debt or Taxes. Humbly addreſſed to the Legiſlature.* By John Woodcock. 8vo. 6d. Cooper.

Inſtead of attempting to give our Readers an adequate idea of a pamphlet which conſiſts entirely of figure-work, we ſhall only remark, that the Author's name ſeems unhappily adapted to a work of this nature. Let its import be reverſed; inſtead of *Woodcock*, let us read *Fowler*; and transfer the former name to the Public: for thoſe are properly the *Woodcocks* who are caught in our State-lottery-*nets*.

Art. 4. *A Letter from Lewis* XV. *to G——l M——t.* 8vo. 6d. Pottinger.

Deſigned to ridicule and abuſe General Mordaunt; and *candidly* publiſhed before the Inquiry into his conduct took place. The Author's abilities are of a piece with his generoſity. He puts us in mind of the name, *Lewis Baboon*, beſtowed upon the Grand Monarch by the Writer of the Hiſtory of John Bull: for Lewis XV. is, by this Letter-ſcribbler, made to chatter like any *Monkey*.

Art. 5. *A Letter from an Officer in the Army, to the People of Great Britain, relative to the late ſecret Expedition.* 8vo. 1s. Staples.

A weak defence of the Officers who commanded in the late Expedition.

Art. 6. *The State Farce; or, They are all come home, &c.* 8vo. 6d. Scott.

This ranks with the Secret Expedition, a Farce, mentioned in our Catalogue for laſt month; and probably comes from the ſame indefatigable Grub; who may be commended for his induſtry, tho' he cannot be praiſed for his ingenuity.

Art. 7. *Remarks upon a Letter publiſhed in the London Chronicle, or Univerſal Evening Poſt, No.* 115. *Containing an Enquiry into the Cauſes of the Failure of the late Expedition againſt Cape-Breton. In a Letter to a Member of Parliament.* 8vo. 6d. Cooper.

The Author ſets out with remarking, that with regard to the late Expedition againſt Cape Breton, under the conduct of Admiral Holborne and General Loudon,—'No better ſcheme could have been projected for retrieving our late misfortunes in North-America, than that enterprize. The importance of Cape Breton to the French, may be eſtimated from the effect which the reduction of it had in the laſt war; it paved the way for the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, and the reſtitution

reſtitution of it appears to have been regarded by France, as the moſt eſſential article of the peace on her part, by her ſtipulating that *Hoſtages* ſhould be given for the performance of it.

'The Expedition againſt this iſland was, indeed, laying the ax to the root of the tree; and the reduction of it would have given Canada its death wound; our failure therefore in this important attempt, may well occaſion a *public* concern.

'The aim of the Writer of the Briſtol-Letter, is, to throw the blame of it upon the Miniſters, and to juſtify the conduct of the General and Admiral, in abandoning the Expedition, as he ſays they did, on the 4th of Auguſt.'—

Our Remarker proceeds to examine the Briſtol-Letter, paragraph by paragraph, and concludes thus.

'Upon the whole, Sir, nothing can be more manifeſt, than that the deſign of the Briſtol Letter is to apologize for the conduct chiefly of the General, though at the expence of the Miniſters: and I cannot but obſerve, the Writer's beſtowing on him the high encomium, which the Romans did on Quintus Fabius Maximus, viz. *Qui* CUNCTANDO *reſtituit rem*; alluding to the celebrated inſtance of Generalſhip which Fabius Maximus ſhewed in avoiding to come to an engagement with the victorious Hannibal. This a matter of too delicate a nature for me to enter into a particular examination of. But I think I may venture to remark one circumſtance, which ſeems parallel in the ſtories of both Generals, viz. That as the Roman General's countrymen at *firſt* ſaw his conduct in ſo unfavourable a light, that they paſſed a public cenſure upon him; notwithſtanding which, as the Roman Hiſtorian ſays, he obſtinately perſiſted in it: ſo, many of the Britiſh General's countrymen have long ſeen *his* in the ſame light that the Romans did at *firſt* that of Fabius Maximus; notwithſtanding which his Lordſhip has moſt ſteadily perſevered in it: and as, at laſt, the Roman General's name was immortalized in Europe by the effect, which *his* delays then had for ſtopping the Carthaginians from over-running Italy, ſo it is to be hoped by all well-wiſhers to their country, that the Britiſh General's name may likewiſe be perpetuated to his honour in North-America, by the happy effects, which *his memorable* delays to come to action there, may have in the *end* towards hindering the French from over-running the Britiſh Colonies.'

Art. 8. *A Letter from the Duke de Richlieu to a certain great Duke in England.* 8vo. 6d. Kincaid.

Ridicules the D. of C. on account of the late Convention at Stade; and beſtows a few ſtrokes on G. M. on account of the late Expedition —*to the iſle of Aix.*

Art. 9. *Ways and Means for Raiſing the extraordinary Supplies to carry on the War for ſeven Years, if it ſhould continue ſo long; without doing any Prejudice to the Manufactures or*

Trade of Great Britain: Alſo, an Account of the ancient and States of the moſt conſiderable Branches of Manufactury and Trade belonging to theſe Kingdoms. Extracted from the Commercial Writings of various Authors, &c. and digeſted in Order of Time. Part I. 8vo. 1 s. 6d. Payne.

This ingenious *Ways and Means Man* propoſes to raiſe extraordinary Supplies, to carry on the War for ſeven years, if it ſhould continue ſo long, without injuring our Trade and Manufactures.

However, he is too modeſt to claim the merit of being the original Projector of the Tax propoſed for this purpoſe; which, he tells us, has been mentioned many times, if mentioning ſignified any thing. 'After ſuch an introduction as this, (ſays he) the Reader will not expect to hear of ſome Tax that he never once thought of, or to be entertained with wit and pleaſantry, and therefore I ſhall now tell him, that the Tax here meant is a Tax upon Batchelors and ſuch Widowers as have no children; but if this had been mentioned in the title-page, it would have miſlead many people, and an endeavour to point out a method of ſupplying the future exigencies of the public, might have been miſtaken for an Eſſay to promote mirth and good humour.

It muſt be confeſſed that Projectors, in general, are a dull heavy race of mortals; but Mr. Maſſie, tho' he profeſſedly diſclaims all pretentions to wit and pleaſantry, is, nevertheleſs, ſuperabundantly witty without knowing it: and we do not remember that any literary production of the kind, ever occaſioned us to laugh more heartily.

But that the Reader may partake of our mirth, we ſhall treat him with the following extracts.

'It will neceſſary,' ſays the Writer, 'to put the Reader in mind of two things which he will probably think as plain, or at leaſt as certain, as that two and two are equal to four.

'Firſt, That there are Batchelors, married Men, and Widowers, in every rank, degree, and claſs of people in this kingdom; that is to ſay, among the Nobility, Gentry, Freeholders, Farmers, Merchants, Tradeſmen, Manufacturers, Labourers, &c.

'Secondly, That the paternal eſtates, perſonal incomes, ſalaries, wages, &c of thoſe ſeveral ranks, degrees, and claſſes of men, are not leſs to the Batchelors or Widowers, on account of their being ſingle, nor greater to the Huſbands on account of their being married.—But theſe words are too general to fully expreſs what is meant, and therefore I ſhall make an application of them to the ſeveral degrees of people before-mentioned, that every perſon may read my meaning in ſuch words as are moſt applicable to his rank or ſtation.

'The lands, houſes, and money of the Nobility and Gentry, are not lett for leſs than their values while the owners of them are Batchelors or Widowers; nor can thoſe lands, &c. be lett for more than their values, when the owners of them are married Men.

'Free-

'Freeholders and Farmers, who are Batchelors or Widowers, do not ſell their corn, cattle, cheeſe, butter, wool, &c. for leſs than the market-prices; and when thoſe Freeholders and Farmers are married, they cannot ſell their corn, &c. for more than the market-prices.

'Merchants and Tradeſmen who are ſingle, do not ſell their commodities or manufactures below the the common prices; and when thoſe Merchants and Tradeſmen are married, they muſt ſtill continue to ſell their commodities or manufactures at the common prices.

'Such Manufacturers and Labourers as have not wives or children to maintain, do not work for leſs than the cuſtomary wages or prices of labour; and when thoſe Manufacturers and Labourers have families to maintain, they muſt ſtill work for the cuſtomary wages.

'Theſe things are ſo plain, that every perſon of common underſtanding muſt know they are true, or at leaſt believe them to be truths.'

After theſe pleaſant endeavours to prove that two and two make four, he deduces an extraordinary inference, not leſs diverting than the foregoing propoſitions.

'Now if the Batchelors and Widowers,' ſays he, 'of each rank, degree, and claſs, do already lett their lands, houſes, and money according to their values; ſell their commodities and manufactures at the common or market-prices; work for the cuſtomary wages or prices of labour, and muſt continue to lett, ſell, or work, for the ſame rents, prices or wages, when they are married;

'It follows,

'That thoſe Batchelors and Widowers muſt continue to lett their lands, ſell their commodities, or work upon the ſame terms, if a tax ſhould be laid upon them.

'For if a man who greatly increaſes and perhaps doubles his expences by having a wife and family, cannot let his land, ſell his commodities, or his labour, for more money than he would have done if he had continued a Batchelor, or a Widower; he certainly would not be able to do ſo on account of a tax upon him, that would not amount to a *twentieth part* of the expences of a wife and children; nor can it be imagined that men in general, or indeed any man, would think of doing that for *one ſhilling* or *pound*, which neither is nor can be done for *twenty ſhillings* or *pounds*.

'It would be thought weak in a man to ſay, that he muſt ſell his commodities or manufactures for more than the common prices, becauſe he had a wife and ſeveral children; and it would be quite ridiculous in a Batchelor or Widower, to tell people that he was taxed for being ſingle, and therefore muſt lett or ſell dearer than married Men.'

Very right, Mr. Maſſie! we are of your opinion; and we think that a Batchelor, or a Widower, who ſhould make ſuch a ſilly plea for

for raiſing his prices, would have very few cuſtomers. But when you ſuppoſe that a man doubles his expences by having a wife and family, you do not ſeem to conſider, on the other hand, that a prudent man, when he marries, at the ſame time doubles his income: and we are not to take it for granted, upon your ſyſtem, that every man makes a Whitechapel bargain.

When Mr. Maſſie is ſpeaking of the conſequence of this tax, we are afraid that he is a little abſent; for he ſays—

'And as to the conſequencial influence that ſuch a tax would have upon our trade, it will be eaſy to ſhew, that there is a great deal to be hoped for, not only in regard to trade, but in ſome other reſpects of as great or greater importance; for a tax upon Batchelors and Widowers would probably increaſe the number of marriages, from which a greater increaſe of people might naturally be expected, and neither Great Britain nor the Britiſh Colonies are at preſent over-ſtocked with inhabitants.'

Now this unlucky paragraph makes his moſt extraordinary Propoſal, for raiſing extraordinary Supplies, an unfortunate *Felo de ſe*; for if it increaſes the number of marriages, the tax to be levied on Batchelors and Widowers will, conſequently, decreaſe, and probably prove deficient for the intended ſupport of a ſeven years war.—In which caſe, we can ſuggeſt no better expedient, than to ſhift the tax, with Mr. Maſſie's approbation, and, as marriages increaſe, to lay it upon CUCKOLDS.

Upon the whole, we cannot commend Mr. Maſſie's ſcheme for taxing Batchelors and Widowers; for, we think, celibacy and widowhood ſufficient puniſhments of themſelves. To loſe the comfort and ſolace of a tender and affectionate wife, to be cut off from the ſoft endearments, and rapturous delights, of matrimony, is a tax too grievous to be patiently endured by a man even of an ordinary degree of ſenſibility; and to be fortunate enough to wed wealth with worth, or rich enough to marry naked merit, *Non cuivis Homini contingit.*

Beſides, Mr. Maſſie has not ſuggeſted any method of levying the propoſed tax; and, for our parts, we cannot conceive any means of collecting it, which will not make it ſubject to all the inconveniencies of a *Poll-Tax*. It will certainly be juſt to tax every one in proportion to the value of his property; for it would be highly unreaſonable, for inſtance, that a noble Duke ſhould pay no more than a poor Author: therefore to aſcertain the meaſure of contribution, it will be neceſſary for all Batchelors, &c. to give in an eſtimate of their circumſtances; which would, perhaps, be highly inconvenient to ſeveral, eſpecially to thoſe who live by their wits.

A tax of this kind too, would wear the badge of ſlavery; for, upon the authority of Monteſquieu, a capitation is moſt natural under a deſpotic government; and a tax upon merchandizes, moſt agreeable to the ſpirit of liberty.

But Mr. Maſſie threatens us with a ſecond part of this treatiſe, in which, perhaps, he will remove theſe ſeeming inſuperable objections.

At

At preſent he has only given us a taſte of his ſcheme; for he has employed only eight pages to demonſtrate the expediency of his favourite propoſal of taxing Batchelors, &c. and has treated us with above fourſcore, of dry extracts, to prove the increaſe of our trade and manufactures. Such uncommon Geniuſes may, however, be allowed to wander from their ſubject.

Art. 10. *Conſiderations on the Leather-Trade of Great Britain. Containing an Account of the Loſſes which the Landed as well as Trading Intereſts ſuffer by the Exportation of unmanufactured Britiſh Leather. And an Eſtimate of the Profits which would ariſe to the Nobility, Gentry, Freeholders, Farmers, and Graziers of this kingdom, if the exportation of ſuch leather was prohibited. The whole being founded upon the former policy of England, in regard to Leather, as is ſhewn by extracts from ſeveral laws; and ſtated in ſo plain a manner, that freeholders, farmers, &c. who are deeply intereſted in this branch of trade, will be able to find out, whether what is ſaid concerning it, be true or falſe.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Payne.

This Treatiſe is another brat of Mr. Maſſie's brain: but as it is upon a *tough* ſubject, he is not ſo free of his mirth and good humour as in the foregoing one. The intent of this is to prove, that the exportation of *Engliſh Leather* is prejudicial to the landed and trading Intereſts of England; and, to ſpeak the truth, it contains ſome ſerious and uſeful obſervations.

The Author tells us, that great quantities of *unmanufactured* ENGLISH LEATHER have been exported for many years; to which exportation he attributes the dearneſs of *Shoes*, *Boots*, and *Britiſh Leather Manufactures* in general.

He ſtrongly recommends a prohibition againſt the exportation of *unmanufactured* Engliſh Leather; and he takes notice likewiſe, that however a commendable partiality in favour of *ancient Cuſtom and Uſage* may prejudice ſome people againſt ſuch a prohibition, that nevertheleſs *ancient Uſage* with regard to the *Leather Trade*, hath been oppoſite and not uniform: and tho' Leather was one of the ancient *ſtaple* commodities of this kingdom, yet he has quoted ſeveral old Statutes, to prove that the exportation of it has been occaſionally prohibited.

He appears to have a comprehenſive knowlege of the ſubject he here treats of, though he is far from being happy in his manner of digeſting his materials. However, they who have patience to wade through trivial remarks, and dull needleſs extracts, will, here and there, find matter well worthy their attention.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 11. *A Treatiſe of Decimal Arithmetic; or, Decimals applied to the common Rules of Arithmetic; the Computation and Arbitration*

tration of Exchanges; Intereſt, ſimple and Compound; Annuities for Years certain, alſo on Lives. With the Doctrine of Circulating and Repeating Decimals. The whole interſperſed with ſeveral ſhort and new Methods of anſwering Queſtions relating to Trade, and Buſineſs; and ſhewing throughout, that moſt Computations therein, are much eaſier performed by Decimals than by whole Numbers. Adapted to the Uſe of Schools and the Man of Buſineſs. By R. Gadeſby, Writing-maſter and Accomptant. 8vo. 4s. Millar.

As few Calculations are performed without attending to Fractions of the Numbers in queſtion, or without leaving ſome ſuch over when the operation is concluded (which, neither the Man of Buſineſs, nor the Man of Science, can reject, without evident loſs) the methods of managing, and obtaining the true value of them, are, therefore, indiſpenſably neceſſary to be known.

Moſt Authors treat of theſe fractional numbers diſtinctly from whole numbers; making the knowlege of them a ſupplemental article of ſchool-education. This may, poſſibly be right, with reſpect to Vulgar Fractions, as they are perplexing to tender minds, and demand peculiar rules, not eaſily attained; but Decimals, that incorporate with Integers in the operation, and are, conſequently, worked by the ſame rules, requiring only the obſervation of a few diſtinctions, ſhewing how to ſeparate them afterwards,—theſe ſhould be introduced to the ſcholar at the time when he is put to reduce numbers from one denomination to another, that the fractional parts of the aſſumed Units may be valued; and then thoſe two diviſions of Arithmetic, Whole Numbers, and Decimals, united, will go on progreſſively together. By this means youth would be made acquainted with the nature and reaſon of the rules they practice, far better than when, after drudging through Whole Numbers until they have acquired ſome expertneſs in them, they are ſurprized with another ſpecies of Arithmetic impoſed upon them: by which means their labour is increaſed, and their learning retarded.

As books of Arithmetic ſufficiently abound, how does it appear that the public is benefitted by new compilations of this kind? When new books are wrote upon old ſubjects, we neceſſarily expect improvements; or, what is equivalent, that the matter already known, be freed from obſtructions; unneceſſary rules retrenched, and needleſs diſtinctions avoided: that the rules be delivered in a clear manner, without verboſity; and, in ſhort, that the compoſition tends to the Reader's improvement, rather than the Bookſeller's emolument.

With regard to Mr. Gadeſby's treatiſe, we have not diſcovered any thing whereby to diſtinguiſh it from the many already written on the ſame ſubjects: as good, it may poſſibly be, but he has not endeavoured to *retrench*; his rules are not the feweſt poſſible, (which, in truth they ought to be) nor can his obſervations be termed conciſe, nor his method clear. It is not intended to condemn this book as a bad one:—but barely to tread the ſame ſteps with former Writers, is

not ſufficient to countenance the introduction of a new book, which, however, often excites curioſity, and almoſt as often diſappoints the Peruſer.

Art. 12. *Pyritologia; or, a Hiſtory of the Pyrites, the principal body in the mineral kingdom: in which are conſidered, its names, ſpecies, beds, and origin; its iron, copper, unmetallic earth, ſulpher, arſenic, ſilver, gold, original particles, vitriol, and uſe in ſmelting. The whole compiled from a collection of ſamples, from viſiting mines, from an intercourſe and correſpondence with naturaliſts and miners; but chiefly from a courſe of chemical enquiries. With a preface, containing an account of the advantages ariſing from mine-works in general, and particularly from thoſe of Saxony. Tranſlated from the German of* J. F. Henckel, *late Chief Director of the Mines at Friberg, in Saxony.* 8vo. 5s. Millar.

Thoſe who have a taſte for ſtudies of this kind, will find their account in the peruſal of the preſent performance of the learned and accurate Henckel; whoſe abilities, in this way, ſtand in no need of our recommendation. As to the tranſlation, it is but indifferently executed: however, the Engliſh reader will not expect to ſee a better, till the ſubject ſhall be more generally ſtudied than it is at preſent, and the demand for books of this ſort, conſequently, increaſed.

Art. 13. *The Moral Miſcellany; or a collection of ſelect pieces in proſe and verſe, for the inſtruction and entertainment of youth.* 12mo. 3s. bound in calf. Griffiths.

In our laſt, we mentioned a collection of this kind, entitled, *The Pleaſing Inſtructor. The Moral Miſcellany* deſerves the preference, on account of the greater number of papers it contains: which, like thoſe in the former collection, are taken from the Spectator, Rambler, Adventurer, &c. together with ſome pieces in verſe from the beſt modern Engliſh poets.—Compilations of this kind may, no doubt, under the direction of judicious maſters, be rendered uſeful in ſchools, to furniſh the minds of youth with juſt ſentiments, upon a great variety of intereſting ſubjects, and to give them ſome notion of the beauty and elegance of our own language:—an important branch of liberal education, though, in general, too much neglected.

Art. 14. *The Sedan: a novel. In which many new and entertaining characters are introduced.* 12mo. 2 vols. 6s. Baldwin.

A ſedan-chair is here made to recite the ſecret hiſtory of all the Fares, male and female, that make uſe of it. By the ſtupidity of the plan, and meanneſs of the writing, it ſeems a fair inference, that Paddy, the chairman, was himſelf the author of this curious production.

Art. 15. *The Hiſtory of two Modern Adventurers. In two volumes.* 12mo. 6s. Staples.

Whoever has curioſity enough to look into theſe volumes, will readily diſcover, that their publiſher has engaged one of the Hands from

from Meſſrs. Noble's manufactory; and as we are informed, that Mr. Staples is a young beginner, we heartily wiſh him joy of the acquiſition!

Art. 16. *The Proſtitutes of Quality; or, Adultery a-la-mode. Being authentic and genuine memoirs of ſeveral perſons of the higheſt quality.* 12mo. 3s. Cooke.

Cull'd from the lewd Eutopian romances that ſo much delighted the chamber-maids and 'prentices of the laſt age:—Surely, ſuch wretched author-craft cannot fail of its reward!

Art. 17. *Memoirs of B—— Tracey.* 12mo. 3s. J. King.

All ſtolen from a wretched book, publiſhed about ſeven years ago, entitled, *The Hiſtory of the Human Heart*; and now impoſed upon the Public for a new Work.

Art. 18. *The Light and Truth of Maſonry explained, in a charge delivered to the antient and honourable Society of Free and Accepted Maſons, at the Pope's-head tavern in Plymouth, on the dedicating and opening a new Lodge-room, April 28, 1757. Alſo, the Moral Part of Maſonry explained, in a charge delivered at the lodge on the 24th of June, 1757; being the feaſt of the nativity of St. John the Baptiſt. By* Thomas Dunckerley, *Maſter of the Lodge.* 8vo. 6d. Exeter, printed by Brice, and ſold by Davey and Law.

The turn and tendency of this performance will beſt appear from the following extract.

'Right Worſhipful Maſter,

'Permit me to addreſs myſelf to you in particular. It is you, Sir, that give light to the blind; inſtruct the ignorant; cloath the naked; and RAISE up them that fall. Order, regularity, and unanimity, (without which no community can long ſubſiſt) it is in your power ſtill to preſerve and keep inviolate from all innovations; and as I am certain the good of the craft is your care and ſtudy, ſo am I confident all immorality and intemperance will ſtill be baniſhed from among us.—But, as I know your ability, and am ſenſible of your modeſty, I ſhall forbear thoſe encomiums which all preſent muſt acknowlege you juſtly deſerve.

'A few words to you, my Brethren, and I have done. I congratulate you on the preſent flouriſhing ſtate of Maſonry in Plymouth, and on the great increaſe of your Lodge, by the addition of ſo many worthy Brothers within this laſt ſix months. Your choice of ſo good a maſter to ſucceed me in the chair, as it is a proof of your juſt diſcernment, ſo it gives me the greateſt pleaſure to find; that you prefer *merit* to every other *motive* or *conſideration*. Continue, my Brethren, to perſevere in principles that are diſintereſted, and I doubt not but you will find this room, which we have now opened and dedicated

to MASONRY, constantly resorted to by the wife, the faithful, and the good,

'Let us consider the intention of our meetings; let submission to your officers, and brotherly love to each other, be shewn by your diligent attendance in the Lodge; and be very careful to enquire into the *characters* and *capacities* of those who are desirous to be admitted among you.

'Study your CONSTITUTIONS and CHARGES, and improve in the FIFTH SCIENCE as far as your abilities and several avocations will permit. Have universal benevolence and charity for all mankind; and wherever you meet your necessitous brethren dispers'd, relieve them to the utmost of your ability, remembering, notwithstanding, not to do things that may really prejudice yourselves or families.

'Let us, by well-doing, put to silence the ignorance of foolish men. As free, but not using our liberty for a cloak of maliciousness, but as the servants of God. Honour all men, love the brotherhood, fear God, honour the King.'

THO. DUNCKERLEY, M. M.

Monday, April 18, 5757.

Art. 19. *A new, compendious Treatise of Farriery; wherein are set forth, in a plain, familiar manner, the disorders incident to horses, and their respective cures, &c. By* John Wood, *late Groom to the King of Sardinia, and at present Groom to the Earl of Rochford.* 8vo. 5 s. Brindley, Withy, &c.

Mr. Wood informs us, that in 1748, he had the honour of being recommended by Sir John Ligonier, in whose service he then was, to the King of Sardinia. This shews that he was no ordinary groom; and his book proves, that he is no ordinary farrier. It will not be expected, that in a *literary* Review, we should enlarge upon the profession of a horse-physician; and therefore we shall only, and briefly, add our humble opinion, that his performance seems well worthy the attention of all, whose interest or pleasure may render them solicitous with regard to the life and health of that *noble, delightful,* and *useful* animal, THE HORSE:—whose generous spirit, beautiful form, and inestimable service to mankind, undoubtedly render him an object of the highest esteem and gratitude that possibly can, in the nature of things, be due, from the highest of God's creatures on earth to one of inferior rank.

POETICAL.

Art. 20. *A New, Historical, Political, Satyrical, Burlesque Ode, on that most famous Expedition of all Expeditions, commonly called, The Grand Secret Expedition, as it was performed by the Author, at a late High Borlase.* Folio, 6 d. Graffenheim.

Some waggish Rhymester has here celebrated the late expedition, to the tune of Ally Croker, Chevy-Chace, Derry Down, &c. &c. &c. all within the usual compass of a birth-day ode: in place of which, during a *scarcity* of *verse* (if such a calamity can possibly happen) this would make an admirable substitute.

RE-

RELIGIOUS *and* CONTROVERSIAL.

Art. 21. *A Letter from the Ghoſt of Mr. S——t, to his Friends: diſpatched to them after his arrival at the inviſible world. Being an humble imitation of, or comment on, the Rev. Mr. H—v—d's Epiſtle, which he ſent to his brethren from the ſame place.* 8vo. 6d. No Publiſher's name.

The Epiſtle alluded to, as above, under the name of H—v—d, (by which is meant the late Rev. Mr. Hayward) was a printed paper, privately handed about by the friends of the deceaſed. It was written ſomewhat in the manner of Mrs. Row's Letters from the Dead; and, like Mrs. Row's, filled with enthuſiaſtic fancies, and *pious breathings*: to ridicule which, was the deſign of this letter from another Ghoſt.—But the ſcope of the pamphlet being intelligible only to thoſe who are in the ſecret of Mr. Hayward's piece, we ſhall ſay no more of this whimſical performance:—of which, indeed, we have already taken more notice than was due to a thing ſo ill-planned, and ſo obſcurely executed.

Art. 22. *A Diſſertation, proving that St. John has predicted the revolution effected by King William, the fate of England, and the continuation of the ſucceſſion in the houſe of Hanover until the Millenium.* By John St. Clair, *M. D.* 4to. 6d. Kinnerſly.

As it is the cuſtom for Princes and Potentates to beſtow liberal rewards on thoſe who bring them good news, ſo we hope the illuſtrious houſe of Hanover will, on this occaſion, duly conſider Dr. St. Clair,—who comes expreſs from the Iſle of Patmos, with advices of ſuch importance to the Royal Family as muſt, ſurely, entitle him to a more than ordinary acknowlegement! Phyſician to his Majeſty at leaſt; or, rather, as more ſuited to his peculiar genius, a Decypherer of myſtical Writings: an office he would doubtleſs diſcharge to admiration,—as it would be very difficult to lay any thing before him, in which he could not either find a meaning, or make one.

ERRATA *in laſt Month's Review,*

Page 349, for *Rome*, read *Italy*.

Page 364. Dele the whole paragraph relating to the meaning of the German word *karre*; our explanation of which, though right, was unneceſſary, as appears from a note in Capt. Fawcett's tranſlation of the book there ſpoken of; in which the Tranſlator had before given a ſufficient explanation of the word. That *note* we had, indeed, over-looked, in our review of the ingenious Captain's performance; and we ſincerely thank the gentleman who ſince pointed it out to us: as we ſhall always, with pleaſure, acknowlege any overſight, or error, we may fall into. Many ſuch, undoubtedly, there are, and ever will be, in works of this kind; and we have only to wiſh, that we had more time, and more ability to avoid them.

Page 371. l. 29, for *gaul*, read *gall*; and the ſame, p. 372, l. 24.

Page 379, line *penult.* put a full point at *any*; dele *and*; and add, *In the mean time, he will do well to get ſome friend to explain to him the following words,* '*Reſpue quod*,' *&c.*—Ibid. line *ult.* after *et*, put a full point.

THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

For DECEMBER, 1757.

The Naval Hiſtory of Britain, from the earlieſt Periods of which there are any Accounts in Hiſtory, to the Concluſion of the Year 1756. *Compiled from the Papers of the late Honourable Capt. George Berkley, Commander of his Majeſty's Ship Windſor. And illuſtrated with a great number of Figures on folio Copper-Plates, of Sea Charts, Heads, Engagements, and other Subjects.* Folio. 1l. 15s. Oſborn, &c.

ON reading the pompous title prefixed to this performance, decorated with the name of a Sea Commander, we flattered ourſelves with the hopes of ſeeing a work hitherto greatly wanted; namely a Naval Hiſtory, written by a perſon thoroughly verſed in naval affairs. By ſuch an hand we hoped to ſee the particulars of every enterprize related with perſpicuity; every action at ſea deſcribed without that abſurdity and contradiction, which *Land-Writers* on *Sea-affairs* are apt to run into; and the whole enriched with obſervations equally entertaining and uſeful. Upon turning, however, to the Dedication (to Prince Edward) we were not a little puzzled to gueſs the Author's meaning; whether, on this occaſion, he intended to employ his *pen* or his *folio copper-plates*, in order to place *our ſtory, freed from the vain incumbrance of words, under his Highneſs's immediate inſpection.* But upon viewing, at the bottom of the page, the name of the ingenious Dedicator, our wonder ceaſed. We are accuſtomed to expect very ſingular diſcoveries from ſo univerſal, ſo uncommon a genius as Dr. Hill! And we venture to affirm, that the public will be as much benefitted by this, as by any

other of the poſthumous works of the *illuſtrious* dead *, which this great man, for the benefit of the living, has uſhered into light. Tho' we cannot doubt of the authenticity of Capt. Berkley's papers, being aſſured of it by one who, as himſelf tells us, *would not flatter Kings*; yet as their names ſeem now inſeparably united, we ſhall ſuppoſe the good Doctor at leaſt equally intitled to the honour of this extraordinary performance.

There ſeems to be among the injudicious Writers of every nation, an ambition of complimenting their countrymen by deducing their original from the earlieſt accounts of time, or the fabulous Heroes of Antiquity. How allowable ſoever this practice may be amongſt Poets and Writers of Romance, it is altogether unbecoming in an Hiſtorian.

Our Author having, in his Preface, blamed Mr. Lediard for beginning his Naval Hiſtory a thouſand years too late, that is, from the Norman Conqueſt; begins his, at leaſt, a thouſand too early.

In the firſt ſix chapters he exerciſes his Reader's patience with an enquiry into the ſtate of Britain, as diſcovered by certain Phœnicians; adopts the monkiſh tradition of Brute, and his followers, and ſagely gives an account of the Trojan's ſucceſſors, and the tranſactions of a powerful Britiſh Navy, in thoſe remote and fabulous times: but this deſerves no farther notice.

Next follows his account of the invaſion of this iſland by Julius Cæſar. Here our Author, in recording an event which, as he obſerves, every *little Reader has by rote, as every common Writer has copied it*, diſtinguiſhes himſelf by rejecting all authorities, and relates the material circumſtances of this tranſaction, authenticated ſolely by his own. Cæſar, indeed, aſſigns as a reaſon for his invading the Britons, (a common pretext among the Romans, to palliate their unjuſt ambition) that they had frequently aſſiſted their neighbours the Gauls againſt the Romans; but how, or on what occaſion, is no where mentioned. He even expatiates on the difficulty of procuring any certain information concerning them. But Dr. Hill, on the contrary, aſſures us, 'That the Romans firſt knew 'Britain powerful, and even terrible to themſelves *at ſea*; for 'their aſſiſtance ſtrengthened the hands of the Veneti, ſo that 'they were able to ſhake their poſſeſſions.' But 'the loſs of the 'fleet ſent upon that important errand was never reſtored. Cæſar' (mark the conduct of this politic Roman!) 'fell upon the Bri-

* Such as the *late* Mrs. Martha Bradley, of Bath, renowned for her ſkill in cookery; and the *late* Mr. Thomas Hale, equally renowned for his diſcoveries in Huſbandry. See Review for May, p. 385.

'tons

'tons before they were able to fit out another navy capable of 'oppoſing him.'

From this period, during ſeveral centuries, we find nothing belonging to a Naval Hiſtory; being here only preſented with a detail of obſcure tranſactions, as land-fights, ſkirmiſhes, &c. in which, however, this Hiſtorian, if it be proper to beſtow that appellation upon him, generally exaggerates the valour, dignity, and importance of the ancient Britons.

Carauſius, at length, in the year 284, makes his appearance; and the ingenious Doctor very quaintly ſtiles him, *a* SIGNAL *Commander in the Britiſh Navy.*

Here we have a pompous ſubject of declamation. A Britiſh navy acting on Britiſh principles!—The Romans fearing to face the power of Britain, now disjoined from them!—And the navy of our country giving a preſage of what it has ſince arrived at, conquering all at ſea!—Who would imagine that this ſwelling and boaſting only implied, that Carauſius, a Roman Admiral, brought, from the coaſts of Gaul, the fleet under his command, compoſed of various nations; and prevailed on the Roman forces in Britain to ſupport him in his independency!—a practice then very frequent in every province throughout the empire.

To point out the many inconſiſtences of this Writer, with reſpect to facts, and his defects with regard to method and ſtile, would be a taſk equally tedious and diſagreeable:—we ſhall, therefore, confine ourſelves to a few general remarks; and cloſe the article with a ſpecimen of the work.

As to his method, the Doctor divides the whole into eighteen books, each of which comprehends the tranſactions of a century; ſome of theſe books contain two chapters, conſiſting each of half a page; while others are ſpun out to about one hundred and ſeventy chapters.

In his deſcription of our Saxon anceſtors, he expreſſes a mortal averſion to the character of that brave and warlike people; repreſenting them as cowards, robbers, and ruffians.

'The firſt of their incurſions, ſays he, was, according to Ammianus, in the year 366. In this expedition they bore up to the ſhore without oppoſition, landed their men, burned and deſtroyed wherever they came; and when they had notice of the approach of the Romans, they retired to their veſſels loaded with ſpoil, and returned with little loſs in number.

'Even this ſhews the cowardly diſpoſition of the Saxon enemy. They were no ſmall force; the body of the Romans were employed in the North, and what could be raiſed on ſuch an emergency where they were, could not be very formidable.

'They fled, however, before their approach: they had come as robbers, and they went off as ſuch, doing all the miſchief they were able, getting together all the treaſure they could lay their hands upon; and flying with it from thoſe againſt whom they might eaſily have defended it.

'Here we ſee the effect of ſuffering the navy of this iſland to be unfit for ſervice. A band of robbers, who would not have dared to put to ſea, to prey upon the moſt defenceleſs veſſels, had the Britiſh ſhips been in order, no ſooner learned that they were rendered unfit for ſervice by neglect, but they attacked its coaſts. Ruffians, whom a thouſandth part of the iſland would have been able to have cut in pieces, boldly committed the worſt acts of cruelty and rapine; becauſe the Britons, nor their Roman maſters, were in a condition to prevent their landing.

'Cowards were valiant, becauſe keeping the ſea behind them, and having no ſea-armament to fear, they knew they could at any time run away.

'What a diſgrace to the policy of thoſe times, that a Banditti ſhould be able to come as Conquerors into the ports of Britain; and after maſſacres and robberies, to depart in ſafety!'

From theſe invaſions of foreign enemies, our Author repeatedly inculcates a truth that no man will diſpute with him, viz. the neceſſity of maintaining a maritime force for the ſafety of this iſland. But he might have ſpared himſelf the trouble of ſo frequently pointing out the inconveniences of not being poſſeſſed of ſuch an advantage, which, from the manners and circumſtances of the times, notwithſtanding his many vague and unſupported aſſertions, was almoſt impoſſible. It is abſurd to ſuppoſe, that mere ſoldiers, like the Romans, or a nation that lived chiefly by hunting and agriculture, like our Britiſh anceſtors, could conſtantly maintain a numerous naval armament, or would chuſe to fight theſe invaders on an element naturally no leſs dreadful to them than even their enemies themſelves.

Speaking afterwards of the defeat and deſtruction of theſe Saxon invaders, 'Theodoſius, ſays he, took this opportunity to repreſent to them, in the faireſt light, the Roman power, and the Roman generoſity. It was not long before his four diviſions were diſpatched four ſeveral ways; and ſome of the Britons joined them, but more ſtaid with the remaining force behind.'

How exactly like that of a knot of modern Coffee-houſe Politicians, has he, on this occaſion, deſcribed the behaviour of the ancient Britons! 'Every eye (tho' they prudently kept out of ſight!) was upon thoſe legions that were out; every ear open to the ſlighteſt rumour concerning their expedition; where they

they arrived this day, where they reſted the next evening, and what was the deſtination of their march, were treated as matters of the moſt immediate moment.'

Here it may be remarked, that our Author, throughout his work, diſcovers a happy talent at modernizing. From the difficulty of raiſing men for the ſea-ſervice, in the time of Alfred, he takes occaſion to deſcant on the cruel and unconſtitutional practice of impreſſing ſeamen; and pays his compliments, *en paſſant*, to Juſtice Fielding and the Marine Society.

As to the ſtile of this work, it is extremely flimſy, unequal, and incorrect; nor do we remember to have ſeen, in any one performance, a greater number of crude and indigeſted ſentiments and obſervations, conveyed in ſuch improper and inaccurate phraſeology. The Sovereignty of a great kingdom (like a ſuit of cloaths) *hangs eaſily* on a Prince's ſhoulders—His acclamations generally *tear* the heavens—and his combatants frequently maintain a *running* fight at land, or a *flying* one at ſea.

Upon the whole, this work is improperly termed a Naval Hiſtory; it ſeems rather a general account of moſt of our battles, and other memorable tranſactions, put together in the Author's peculiar manner, and ſuited to the common notions and prejudices of the lower ſort of Readers. While he expatiates on the ſtory of Thomas a Becket, on the battles of Creſſy, Poctiers, and Agincourt, and on our inteſtine broils, he omits ſome very remarkable expeditions by ſea, and even one of ſo modern a date as that under Cathcart, &c. in the year 1740, againſt Carthagena. It is not eaſy to imagine how an Author, in the leaſt attentive to his ſubject, could be guilty of theſe, and ſuch like egregious overſights.

In 1692, Lewis XIV had laid a ſcheme for the invaſion of England, in favour of James II. For this purpoſe twenty thouſand men, among whom were many Britiſh ſubjects, were ordered down to the ſea-coaſt between Cherburgh and St. Maloes; three hundred tranſports were got ready for their embarkation, and the fleet of France, commanded by De Tourville, was appointed to favour their intended deſcent.—This occaſioned the engagement off La Hogue; of which our Author gives the following account, which ſhall ſuffice as a ſpecimen of the work.

'The ſhew of war, which had been continued languidly on each ſide now for ſeveral ſeaſons, in 1692 ripened into action.

'King William this year went to Holland; and the French, taking advantage of his abſence, aſſiſted James with a fleet and army, which he joined at La Hogue.

'This was ſoon known in England; and it juſtly appeared a matter of the higheſt import. Admiral Ruſſel was commiſſioned with the nation's ſafety; and had a large force got ready with all diligence and diſpatch.

'The French grew inſolent on our late tame behaviour: they prepared veſſels at Breſt; and they declared their purpoſe of meeting Sir Ralph Delaval, then returning from Cadiz with a ſmall ſquadron, and fighting him on equal terms. This was, perhaps, mere bravado: however it was, the Engliſh ſquadron arrived in the Downs, without having ſeen any thing of them.

'Beſide the Admiral's own force, and this of Delaval's, another ſquadron was fitted out, and put under the command of Admiral Carter.

'In a little time the Dutch were joined to theſe; and the whole force being collected, it was determined in a Council of War to ſail for La Hogue.

'Some frigates were ſtationed to cruize off the coaſt of Normandy; and the forces intended for a deſcent were to be landed at St. Maloes, protected by the body of the fleet laid weſtward for that purpoſe. *This reduced the French to the neceſſity of coming to an engagement at ſea, or the diſgrace of being calm ſpectators of an invaſion of their country.*

'On the eighteenth of May the Admiral ſtood to the coaſt of France; all Europe waiting with impatience, and with horror, the news of the deciſive blow.

'Early the next morning the ſcouts weſtward made ſignals of their ſeeing the enemy.

'The whole fleet was on this drawn up in line of battle. 'Twas yet early morning, and a fog hid from each other the number and force of the enemy.

'De Tourville commanded the French fleet, which were in number * ſixty three ſhips of the line of battle, and fifty-five ſmall craft.

'The French Admiral ſuppoſed he had only a part of the Engliſh fleet to engage; but the ſun burſting early through the miſt, and in a few minutes diſſipating it entirely, ſhewed him the whole united fleets of England and Holland.

'The Engliſh fleet conſiſted of ſixty-three ſhips, carrying 27,725 ſeamen: and 4500 guns, Frigates and fireſhips three and twenty.

* The Author gives a liſt of all the ſhips on both ſides, with their number of men and guns; but a tranſcript of theſe would have taken up too much room in our Review.

'The

'The Dutch fleet conſiſted of thirty-ſix ſhips, carrying 12,950 men; and 2494 guns. Fourteen frigates and fireſhips.

'Engliſh and Dutch, in all, ninety-nine ſhips of the line; 40,675 ſeamen; and 6994 guns. Thirty-ſeven fireſhips and frigates.

'Tourville was advanced too far for flight, and he put on a needful reſolution.

'Between ten and eleven his ſhips bore down upon the Engliſh: they had the weather gage, and our Admiral gave orders to expect them, and let them advance as far as they choſe.

'The Dutch Admiral Allemonde was ſent to get weſtward of the French, and the blue ſquadron was ordered to cloſe the line.

'At half an hour after eleven Tourville, in the largeſt veſſel of the French, the Royal Sun, an hundred gun ſhip, came up within muſket-ſhot of the Engliſh Admiral, and began the engagement, with all that fury the French naturally ſhew in the firſt moments of an action.

'The Engliſh ſtood this with their accuſtomed ſteadineſs, and when the French ſpirit flagged, theirs grew more conſpicuous.

'Tourville, who had promiſed himſelf the glory of deſtroying our Admiral's ſhip, lay in this cloſe ſtation more than hour. It grew calm, and the Engliſh had throughout the advantage: at firſt they fired three guns to two of the French; but towards the end of the conflict, three, four, and at laſt five to one.

'The ſlaughter on board the French Admiral was terrible: but he flattered himſelf the Engliſh ſuffered as much, and in that miſtaken thought he perſevered. His men at length refuſed the ſervice: they deſerted their guns, and ran down into the hold; and it was with difficulty, and not without great aſſiſtance and ſupport, his ſhattered veſſel was towed away.

'Five ſhips of the French poſted themſelves ſoon after round about their ſhattered Admiral, and renewed the conflict, as Ruſſel followed; two of the Engliſh veſſels came in to his ſupport, and with this unequal force of three to ſix, the Engliſh had the glory of driving the beſt ſhips of France before them, till a fog in the afternoon ſecured them from purſuit.

'Twas but a little while the French had this protection: the fog diſperſed, and they were ſeen flying. All ſhips that could come up were ordered to chaſe: and the ſailors uſed their utmoſt diligence.

'While they were in this purſuit, a violent firing was heard to the weſt. It was Sir Cloudeſly Shovel, who had got to the windward of Tourville's own ſquadron, and running in between him and their Admiral of the Blue, attacked him with a dreadful violence.

'The weather favoured the French, for nothing elſe could have ſaved their Admiral. The fog, which had been cleared away a little while, returned again, and it grew calm. Sir Cloudeſly then came to an anchor.

'All was confuſion ſtill among the enemy: the Sandwich, a ſecond rate, drove in among them, and her Commander Haſtings, making a virtue of neceſſity, fought them alone, and fell with glory.

'Three of their ſhips blew up in the night; and before this, Carter, Rear-Admiral of the Blue, fell in with thoſe moſt to the weſtward: he fell; but his laſt breath commanded his people to fight the ſhip as long as ſhe would ſwim, and the French knew the orders were obeyed ſeverely.

'They fled in the night, and the morning was foggy. The Engliſh Admiral gave orders, as ſoon as the clear day diſcovered them, to chaſe: no line of battle to be obſerved, but every ſhip to make its beſt way after them. The flight and the purſuit employed this day, with little action on either part; and in the night's chace the Admiral's fore-maſt came down: it had been ſhattered in his long and obſtinate engagement with De Tourville, and now could ſtand no longer.

'He continued the purſuit; and at four in the morning the tide of ebb being done, he came to an anchor. Some of our own, and ſome of the Dutch veſſels, were in the morning conſiderably ahead of him, the loſs of his fore-maſt having prevented his ſpeed.

'The French continued flying, and their Admiral's ſhip, the Royal Sun, ran a-ground: the two principal veſſels next to this ſtood near to prevent accidents; and Sir Ralph Delaval, who was in the rear, had the glory of their deſtruction. The Admiral ſent him orders to keep ſhips enough there to deſtroy theſe three, and to ſend off the reſt after the body of the enemy.

'Sir Ralph performed the ſervice, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf as much by his regard to thoſe, who performed the dangerous part of the ſervice, as by the reſolution of executing it. His own Letter will beſt deſcribe the event, and do him moſt honour,

Sir

Sir Ralph Delaval's Letter to the Earl of Nottingham, on board the Royal Sovereign near Cherbourg, May 22.

"I hold it my duty to acquaint you, that on the 21ſt inſtant, Admiral Ruſſel having made the ſignal for the fleet to cut their cables, I obſerved the French to be forced from the Race of Alderney (where they anchored) to the eaſtward; and finding that ſome of them endeavoured for the bay of Cherbourg, I ſtood in for that place, where I found three three-decked ſhips of the enemy's, but ſo cloſe to the ſhore, and within rocks, that it was not ſafe for me to attempt them till I had informed myſelf of the road; they being hauled into ſhoal water. I immediately took my boats, and ſounded within gun-ſhot of them; which they endeavoured to prevent by firing at us: and that no time might be loſt, I went immediately on board the St. Albans, where, for the encouragement of the ſeamen, I hoiſted my flag; and having ordered the Ruby, with two fireſhips, to attend me, ſtood in with them; leaving the great ſhips without, as drawing too much water. Coming very near, they galled us extremely; and finding the fireſhips could not get in, I judged it beſt to retreat without ſhot, and there anchored; and immediately called all the Captains: where it was reſolved to attempt them in the morning, with all the third and fourth rates and fireſhips. But, after having drawn them into four fathom and a half water, I found we could not do our buſineſs, the water being ſhoal. Upon this I ordered three fireſhips to prepare themſelves to attempt the burning them; going myſelf with all the barges and tenders, to take them up, if by the enemy's ſhot they ſhould miſcarry. Indeed I may ſay, and I hope without vanity, the ſervice was warm; yet, God be praiſed, ſo effectually performed, that, notwithſtanding all their ſhot, both from their ſhips and forts, two of our fireſhips had good ſucceſs, by burning two of them; the other, by an unfortunate ſhot, was ſet on fire, being juſt going on board the enemy. Indeed, ſo brave was the attempt, that I think the men can hardly be ſufficiently rewarded; and doubt not but their Majeſties will do them right. The third French ſhip being run aſhore, and obſerving the people on board to go on ſhore by boats full, I ordered the St. Albans, the Reſerve, and others, to fire upon her, judging it might cauſe them all to quit her; and, after having battered her for ſome time, I obſerved ſhe made no reſiſtance. I took all the boats armed, and went on board her. I found abundance of men, ſeveral wounded, but no officers; and having cauſed all the people, as well thoſe that were wounded as others, to be taken out; I ſet her on fire. Had I not had notice by my ſcouts, that thirty ſhips were ſtanding in with us, I had ſent all the French on ſhore, who are now very troubleſome to me. The ſhips we

ſaw

ſaw proved to be Sir John Aſhby, and the Dutch, coming from the weſtward. We are proceeding together to the eaſtward, to La Hogue, where I am informed three or four of the enemy's ſhips are; and, if ſo, I hope God will give us good ſucceſs. I expect to find the Admiral to-morrow, where I hope to hear he has deſtroyed ſome of the enemy's ſhips, having left him in chace of them laſt night, ſtanding to the eaſtward, and pretty near them.

" My Lord, I hope you will excuſe me, if I preſume to pray, you will uſe your intereſt with the Queen, that a reward may be given to the three Captains of the fireſhips, and ſeveral of the others: for greater zeal, and greater bravery, I never ſaw. I pray your excuſe for being thus tedious and particular.

" Pray God preſerve their Majeſties: that their arms may be ever crowned with ſucceſs, by ſea and land, ſhall be the prayers and the endeavour of, &c.

" P. S. Captain Heath burnt Tourville's ſhip, the Royal Sun, which was the moſt difficult. Captain Greenway burnt the other, called the Conquerant. The Admirable was burnt by our boats. Captain Fowlis who attempted the Royal Sun, was ſet on fire by the enemy's ſhot, yet he deſerves as well as the others."

' While the brave Vice-Admiral was thus deſtroying the prime of the French ſhips in Cherbourg, eighteen of the reſt, which had got to the eaſtward off Barfleur, were ſeen haling in for La Hogue.

' The Admiral threw himſelf in their way, and anchored there at night. By four in the morning he weighed, and ſtood in near to the land. After hindrances from the tide, he got under ſail again at two in the afternoon, and plying in with La Hogue, he ſaw thirteen of the French fleet cloſe in with the ſhore.

' His veſſel was too large for the ſervice; but it hung threatening over them: he concerted meaſures for their deſtruction, and he commiſſioned Vice-Admiral Rooke of the Blue, with a ſquadron of ſmaller veſſels, fireſhips, and armed boats, for the execution.

' France trembled for that force with which ſhe had a little before thought to determine the fate of England. The only hope now was in the defence of ſhallow water; and the veſſels lay ſo cloſe in, that none but ſmall veſſels of ours could come up with them.

' Theſe were in number, and in the ſpirit of the men, proportioned to the ſervice for which their bulk was ſo unequal; they

drove in upon the frighted enemy; and the larger ſhips of the Engliſh ſtood crowded to behold the execution.

'With theſe French ſhips of war lay ſeveral tranſport ſhips, and veſſels of ammunition. All were at firſt put in a poſture of defence; but the Engliſh, intent on glory, and deſpiſing danger, ran in upon them in their boats: they that evening burnt one half the number, and the reſt in the ſucceeding morning.

'The French were driven from the ſhips; and when they manned their forts and batteries on ſhore, our victorious ſailors plied their own guns upon them from the ſhips; and made the French and Iriſh force, which lay encamped ready to be taken on board for a deſcent on England, ſpectators of the glorious atchievement.

'Sir John Aſhby at this time came in with his ſquadron from a fruitleſs chace; and the Admiral, to give him an opportunity of redeeming his endangered reputation, ſent him with ſome Engliſh and Dutch veſſels after a few of the enemy, whom he had ſeen ſtanding eaſtward; when himſelf followed theſe devoted veſſels to La Hogue.

'He ordered him to run along the French coaſt, as far as Havre, in purſuit of theſe: but whether cowardice, or treachery, or negligence leaſt likely of the three, prevented, he did no more here than in his other deſtination: and the people of England with juſtice accuſed him of ſuffering more than thirty of the terrified enemy's veſſels to eſcape; every one of which he might as ſurely have deſtroyed as Delaval and Rooke had thoſe appointed to their work, at Cherbourg and La Hogue.

'The French never ſhewed more, than on this occaſion, the ſpirit of their country; deſperate to engage; and, having made the attack, as violent in running away. De Tourville might have avoided an action; but he choſe it: he made the attack with the ſame wind that would have ſecured him a retreat; and he behaved throughout with gallantry: but perhaps not one of all the French Commanders beſide deſerves that character.

'The Engliſh Admiral Ruſſel deſerves not only for his behaviour in the action, but for his whole conduct, immortal glory. The French depended on his abſence: they expected to have attacked Delaval and Carter alone: and ſo it would have been, had not Admiral Ruſſel, contrary to the opinion of his Pilots, ſailed from the river juſt when he did.

'It is not eaſy to ſay how much the nation owes his memory: the conſequences of an advantage on the enemy's ſide would have been terrible; for the forces encamped at La Hogue and in the

the adjacent country, would have been ſoon upon the Engliſh ſhore; and none knows what they might have atchieved againſt a people diſpirited by ſuch an action.

'There are points of reſolution in the general conduct of a fleet, as well as in the hour of action, on which more depends than can poſſibly be at the time conceived; and this conduct of our Admiral, owing ſolely to that principle, ought to ſet it high with thoſe who follow his example.

'The victorious fleet returned to England, and Queen Mary ſent down thirty thouſand pounds to Portſmouth, to be diſtributed among the common men, who had ſo nobly ſerved their country.'

In the foregoing account of this action, ſome very great inaccuracies may be remarked.

In the firſt place, we are told *, that *the French were reduced to the neceſſity of coming to an engagement at ſea, or the diſgrace of being calm ſpectators of an invaſion of their country.* This is an abſolute miſrepreſentation. A deſcent on the coaſt of France was, indeed, talked of in England; but it was near two months after the action, before any tranſports came round, for that purpoſe, from the Thames to Spithead: the French therefore, at that time, had little reaſon to fear any ſuch *diſgrace*; and conſequently, could not, from that conſideration, be reduced to come to an engagement. And even after the defeat of their fleet, the project of a deſcent was found impracticable.

Secondly, this Writer brands Sir John Aſhby with the imputation of treachery, or cowardice, for ſuffering part of the French fleet to eſcape; but he ought to have mentioned that theſe ſhips deſperately ſteered through a very dangerous channel, the Race of Alderney; where, as the beſt ſeamen have allowed, it would have been the higheſt imprudence to follow them:—and accordingly, after an examination before the Houſe of Commons, Sir John was honourably diſmiſſed.

Neither, we preſume, was our Author's common-place obſervation, concerning the French, verified on this occaſion, viz. that they were deſperate to engage, and, having made the attack, were as violent in running away.—In juſtice even to our enemies, it ſhould be confeſſed, that they performed, on this occaſion, as much as could be expected againſt a force ſo much ſuperior to them as the united fleet were: though our Hiſtorian does not make the diſparity, as to the number of ſhips, ſo great as it is by all foreign Writers *averred*, and even by ſome of our own *allowed*, to have been.

* See page 486.

We

We ſhall laſtly take notice of a notorious anachroniſm, of which our Author is guilty.

After having ended his account of the expedition againſt Pondicherry, under Admiral Boſcawen, he begins the ſubſequent chapter with obſerving, 'That while theſe things were doing in the Eaſt, our naval force was well employed in Europe.'—Hints at the advantages gained by Lord Anſon and Admiral Warren, in May 1747, and inſerts Sir Edward Hawke's Letter to the Lords of the Admiralty, containing the particulars of his ſucceſs.

Captain Boſcawen, however, commanded the Namur, under the Admirals Anſon and Warren, and was wounded in the firſt of theſe engagements; and lay at Spithead, bound with his fleet to the Eaſt-Indies, when L'Entendiere's ſquadron, fitted out to intercept him, was, by Admiral Hawke brought into Portſmouth.—But who, from this Hiſtorian's account, would imagine, that Boſcawen (who, according to Dr. Hill, was then in the Eaſt-Indies) bore a principal ſhare in the firſt action, and was, in ſome meaſure, the cauſe of the ſecond? If this Gentleman is thus inaccurate in regard to tranſactions ſo recent, what hiſtorical preciſion can be expected, with regard to thoſe which are obſcured by time, or rendered intricate by various and contradictory repreſentations?

The Parliamentary Hiſtory of England, &c. Vol. XI. *and* XII. *See Review for November.*

WE proceed with pleaſure to recommend this uſeful and entertaining collection to the public peruſal. In the enſuing volumes, containing an account of thoſe civil commotions which proved fatal both to the King and kingdom, our Authors have acquitted themſelves with their uſual diligence and exactneſs; and their reflections, though but few, appear to be made with diſcernment and impartiality.

An hiſtory of this nature, compiled from extracts out of the parliamentary records, and illuſtrated by the debates of both houſes, previous to the paſſing of any material reſolution, has greatly the preference of any other kind of chronicle. Such authentic tranſcripts, not only diſcloſe many ſecret and uſeful particulars, but, by conveying the ſenſe of the ſeveral parties of former days, ſerve to direct the Reader's judgment in his comment on thoſe intereſting occurrences, and enable him to trace the ſprings and motives which actuated the promoters of the extraordinary revolutions they occaſioned.

In our laſt Review, we left the King and Parliament raiſing levies; Sir John Hotham having refuſed to admit the King into Hull,

Hull, and the Parliament having juſtified his refuſal. The kingdom was now divided into parties; ſome joining the King, at York, and others adhering to the Parliament; who came to the following reſolutions.

"That the King intended to make war upon the Parliament.

"That ſuch intent was a breach of his truſt, contrary to his oath, and tending to the diſſolution of government.

"That whoſoever ſhould aſſiſt him in ſuch war, were traitors by the fundamental laws of the kingdom."

On the debate of theſe votes, the Lord Herbert of Cherbury, was committed to the cuſtody of the Gentleman Uſher, for ſpeaking the following words—"*I ſhould agree to it, if I could be ſatisfied that the King would make war upon the Parliament* WITHOUT CAUSE." Upon his petition, however, declaring his ſorrow for theſe words, he was diſcharged, and permitted to go beyond ſea for the recovery of his health; but he went directly to the King at York.

The Parliament having printed a declaration, in anſwer to the King's meſſage concerning the militia, without any previous preſentment of it to his Majeſty, the King thought fit to publiſh an anſwer; which being too long for our inſertion, we ſhall content ourſelves with the following extract:

"We very well underſtand how much it is below the high and royal dignity wherein God hath placed us, to take notice of, much more to trouble ourſelf with anſwering, thoſe many ſcandalous and ſeditious pamphlets and printed papers, which are ſcattered with ſuch great licence throughout the kingdom, notwithſtanding our earneſt deſire, ſo often in vain preſſed for a reformation; though we find it evident, that the minds of many of our weak ſubjects have been, and ſtill are, poiſoned by thoſe means; and that ſo general a terror hath poſſeſſed the minds and hearts of all men, that while the preſſes ſwarm, and every day produceth new tracts againſt the eſtabliſhed government of the church and ſtate, moſt men want the courage or conſcience to write, or the opportunity and encouragement to publiſh, ſuch compoſed ſober animadverſions, as might either preſerve the minds of our good ſubjects from ſuch infection, or reſtore and recover them when they are ſo infected: but we are contented to let ourſelf fall to any office that may undeceive our people, and to take more pains this way by our own pen, then ever King hath done, when we find any thing that ſeems to carry the reputation and authority of either, or both Houſes of Parliament; and will not have the ſame refuted or diſputed by common and vulgar

pens,

pens, till we are thoroughly informed whether those acts have, in truth, that countenance and warrant they pretend. Which regard of ours we doubt not but, in time, will recover that due reverence (the absence whereof we have too much reason to complain of) to our person and our *messages*, which in all ages hath been paid (and no doubt is due) to the crown of England.

"We have therefore taken notice of a printed paper, entitled, *A Declaration of both Houses of Parliament, in answer to our last message concerning the militia, published by command:* the which we are unwilling to believe (both for the matter of it, the expressions in it, and the manner of publishing it) can result from the consent of both houses: neither do we know by what lawful command such uncomely and irreverent mention of us can be published to the world. And though declarations of this kind have of late, with too much boldness, broken in upon us and the whole kingdom, when one or both houses have thought fit to communicate their counsels and resolutions to the people; yet we are unwilling to believe, that such a declaration as this should be published in answer to our message, without vouchsafing at least to send it to us as their answer: their business, for which they are met by our writ and authority, being to counsel us for the good of our people, not to write against us to our people; no consent of ours, for their long continuing together, enabling them to do any thing but what they were first summoned by our writ to do."—

Soon after this, the Parliament published a long declaration, which contained a recapitulation of all the errors and miscarriages in government, from the dissolution of the last Parliament. In this declaration we meet with the following remarkable words.

"We are ready to make it good before all the world, that *though his Majesty hath passed many bills very advantageous for the subject*, yet in none of them have we bereaved his Majesty of any *just, necessary, or profitable prerogative* of the crown."

By this negative pregnant, the Parliament seemed to admit, that they had bereaved the King of part of his prerogative; though of such part only as they conceived to be neither just, necessary, or profitable. But might not the King have used the same argument to justify his violation of their privileges; and have said, that he bereaved them of none which were *just, necessary*, or *profitable?*

The prerogative of the crown, and the privileges of the subject, ought to be held equally sacred and inviolable: and if the justice and utility of them is suffered to be drawn into question, from time to time, there will be no such thing as any permanent prerogative in the crown, or privilege in the subject.

There

There are many prerogatives and privileges, which are not aſcertained by any written law now in being, but ſupported by preſcriptive right. Yet, at what time ſoever they were eſtabliſhed, the antient exerciſe of them ſhould be allowed as an argument of their utility: for if *ſettled* points of prerogative in the *crown* may be queſtioned, and voted unprofitable, through diſlike to the King, or any other motives; by the ſame rule, a corrupt and obſequious Parliament, devoted to the views of a Monarch, may determine particular privileges of the ſubject to be unneceſſary, however eſſential they may be to the preſervation of public liberty.

If prerogatives and privileges, therefore, are liable to be ſuppreſſed or revived, as the determinations for and againſt their utility ſhall prevail, the changes they will undergo from the reſolutions of refractory ambition at one time, and the deciſions of pliant venality at another, will continually ſhake the frame of government, and endanger its diſſolution.

But in truth, neither the King nor Parliament ſeem to have expreſſed much regard for the conſtitution; the main ſtruggle between them appears to have been, whether he or they ſhould be arbitrary: and the conteſt, in the end, proved the ruin of both, and introduced a lawleſs Stratocracy.

The foregoing declaration of the Parliament, produced a great defection from their party. The Lord-Keeper Littleton, in particular, who had been ſtrenuous on their ſide, went over to the King, and took the *great ſeal* with him, which was thought to be a conſiderable advantage to his Majeſty.

The Lord-Keeper's ſudden departure greatly dejected the Houſe of Lords, and diſpoſed them to appoint a committee, to conſider of an accommodation between the King and his People; upon which occaſion the Earl of Briſtol made a ſpeech, from which we ſhall take the following extract.

"Truly, my Lords, by the goodneſs of his Majeſty, and by the prudent endeavour of the Parliament, this ſtate is almoſt reduced to that equal and even temper; and our ſickneſs is rather continued out of fancy and conceit (I mean fears and jealouſies) than out of any real diſtempers.

"I well remember, that, before the beginning of this Parliament, ſome Noble Lords preſented a petition unto the King; and in that petition did ſet down all or moſt of the grievances and diſtempers of the kingdom which then occurred to them. To theſe, as I conceive, the Parliament have procured, from his Majeſty, ſuch redreſſes as are to their good ſatisfaction.

"Many

"Many other things, for the eaſe, ſecurity, and comfort of the ſubject, have been, by their great induſtry, found and propounded; and, by his Majeſty's goodneſs, condeſcended unto. And now we are come ſo near the happineſs of being the moſt free and moſt ſettled nation in the Chriſtian world, our dangers and miſeries will grow every day greater and nearer, if not ſpeedily prevented."

Notwithſtanding this conciliating ſpeech, we find no progreſs made towards an accommodation; for the breach was now grown too wide ever to cloſe again. Both ſides were buſy in making hoſtile preparations, but they proſecuted the war with their pens as well their ſwords. Our Authors have given us ſeveral well-written remonſtrances and declarations of Parliament, which were as well anſwered by the King. In theſe choice pieces, the important ſubjects of privilege and prerogative are admirably debated; but as they are too tedious for our inſertion, we refer the curious reader to the hiſtory itſelf.

The condition of the ſubject, eſpecially of thoſe who had offices under the King, was now truly deplorable; his Majeſty demanding their attendance and aſſiſtance by their allegiance, and the Parliament impeaching them as delinquents, if they obeyed. Nevertheleſs, the greater number of Lords, and ſeveral of the Commons, went over to the King, who was very diligent in ſummoning the northern counties to furniſh him with troops.

On notice of theſe preparations, the Parliament opened a ſubſcription at eight per cent. to which ſeveral Lords contributed largely. The Earl of Northumberland, Lord-Admiral, ſubſcribing 2000l. Lord Clarendon informs us, that when this ſubſcription was ſet on foot in the Houſe of Commons, Sir Henry Killigrew being called upon, told them, "If there were occaſion he would provide a good horſe, and a good ſword, and made no queſtion but he ſhould find a good cauſe." But within a few days, both he, and all that were taken notice of for refuſing, found it ſafeſt for them to leave the town; there being viſibly great animoſity againſt them, both within and without the walls.

The Lords, however, about the King were not idle. They ſubſcribed a declaration, in which they profeſſed, before God and the world, that they were fully perſuaded that his Majeſty had no intention to make war upon his Parliament; but that all his endeavours tended to the firm and conſtant ſettlement of the true proteſtant religion, the juſt privileges of Parliament, the liberty of the ſubject, the law, peace, and proſperity of the kingdom.

The Peers in council ſubſcribed a further declaration in the King's favour, in which they ſet down, "The tumults, and

the violence offered to particular perſons in thoſe tumults; the threats and menaces of the rabble at the doors of the Houſe, when they had a mind any exorbitant thing ſhould paſs; the breach and violation of the old orders and rules of Parliament, whilſt matters were in debate, and the reſuming matters again in a thin Houſe; and reverſing, waving, or contradicting *reſolutions* made in a full Houſe: and laſtly, Mr. Holles's coming to the bar, and demanding the names of thoſe Lords who refuſed to conſent to the militia, when the multitude without menaced and threatened all thoſe diſſenters." After which they ſaid, "They conceived they could not be preſent there with honour, freedom, or ſafety; and therefore forbore to be any more preſent; and ſo all thoſe *votes*, *concluſions*, and *declarations* had paſſed, which had begot theſe diſtractions throughout the kingdom." And this they delivered to the King, ſigned under their hands. And yet (which is a ſufficient inſtance how unendued men were with that ſpirit and courage which was requiſite) the next day after the delivery, many Lords came to his Majeſty, and beſought him, "That he would by no means publiſh that paper, but keep it in his own hands;" ſome of them ſaying, "That if it were publiſhed, they would diſavow it:" So that material and weighty evidence, which then might have been of ſovereign uſe to the King, was rendered utterly ineffectual to his ſervice; his Majeſty finding it neceſſary to engage his princely word to them, "never to make it public without their conſent;" which he performed moſt punctually; and ſo to this day it was never divulged.'

Affairs began now to grow very critical; the Parliament had received repeated aſſurances from their agents, the Lord Lieutenants, of the good ſucceſs of their *militia-ordinance* in moſt parts of the kingdom. But that the minds of all the King's ſubjects were not wholly alienated from him, will appear from the following remarkable letter ſent from the Sheriff and Gentry of the county of Nottingham, to Sir Thomas Hutchinſon and Robert Sutton, Eſq; their repreſentatives in Parliament, which is too curious and intereſting to be omitted.

"Gentlemen,

"We cannot but ſtand amazed to ſee the King, the Lords, and Commons agree in all that we can think neceſſary for reformation, and for ſecuring us hereafter to be governed according to the good laws of the land in force, and yet ſuch great diſtraction among thoſe three eſtates. We heard long ſince reports, and ſaw printed papers of the great dangers of Papiſts, and that even in our own county; but believe there was no truth nor ground for any ſuch. We heard great rumours of foreign forces from France and Denmark; but, thanks be to God, we ſee

no

no ſuch danger: and yet, under theſe pretences, there is great preparation of putting us in a poſture of defence, and a great neceſſity pretended of ſettling the militia; but we ſee more cauſe to fear the remedy than the diſeaſe: for this poſture, as you call it, of defence, doth carry a face of war with it even amongſt ourſelves; and concerning it we are diſtracted with contrary commands; the Houſes of Parliament command one thing, the King forbids that command; the King commands, and the Houſes of Parliament forbid that command; and we are at a ſtand; but yet we are ever ready to yield obedience to all the known laws of the land; and we have ever been taught, that all thoſe laws were made by Parliaments, conſiſting of three eſtates, the King, Lords, and Commons; and we think it dangerous to untwiſt that triple cord: And we hold it our greateſt privilege, that the King and Lords, whom we have heard ſometime joined in council, could not make a law to bind us without our conſent in Parliament; and, by the ſame reaſon, we cannot expect that the Commons, with the Lords, ſhould make a law, or an ordinance of the force of a law, to bind without the King, eſpecially againſt the King. And as we do not yield any act of obedience to the King's command ſimply, but as it is warranted by law, made by his authority, with the conſent of both houſes, ſo we ſhall not conceive ourſelves bound to obey one or both Houſes without the King, but in ſuch things as are according to the known laws of the land.

" When the King, by his writ, gave us power to chuſe you, it was to treat *de quibuſdam arduis, &c.* We never conceived your only *votes* ſhould be our law, nor conceived we had ſuch a power to confer upon you: And we require you not to conſent to lay any ſuch command upon us, nor to engage us in any civil war for the maintenance of ſuch votes, under colour of privileges againſt our lawful King; to whom many of us, by the appointment of the law, have taken the oath of ſupremacy and allegiance, to which all of us are bound. And beſide, we have, at the command of both Houſes, taken the late *proteſtation*; wherein we have vowed to maintain the doctrine of the church of England, his Majeſty's royal perſon, honour, and eſtate, the privileges of Parliament, and the liberties of the ſubject; and we ſhall endeavour to maintain every part and clauſe thereof reſpectively with our lives and fortunes: and we conceive our beſt directions therein to be the known laws, the maintenance whereof we account our only liberty and defence. And we account the ſureſt way to enjoy the benefit of theſe laws, is to join and comply with his Majeſty, under whoſe protection, next under God, we can only hope to enjoy the benefit thereof; eſpecially his Majeſty having, ſince this Parliament, joined in the making

of as good laws as ever any King hath done; and made ſo gracious promiſes of his future government according to the law, and given abundant ſatisfaction for ſome unhappy accidents in his paſt government, that we conceive great cauſe to return him chearful thankfulneſs for theſe laws; and to yield a faithful obedience, and to confide in him for the future."——

Soon after a declaration was publiſhed from the county of Hereford, which the Parliament voted to be a ſcandalous libel. Among other things, they warned the Parliament to avoid the rocks upon which others had ſplit, viz.

"1. The venting of particular ends of avarice and ambition in the public cauſe.

"2. Private combinations and chamber conventicles, to reſolve before-hand what ſhall be done in the Houſe.

"3. Hindering the freedom of ſpeech, by impriſonment of their perſons.

"4. Denying information by the humble way of petitions from the county, as that moſt excellent orthodox petition of our brethren of Kent; and of rejecting informations of letters to our Knights and Burgeſſes.

"5. The ready ſwallowing of informations and jealous rumours againſt his Majeſty; the ſtyling them the maliguant party, and enemies to the ſtate, which were, truly and conſcionably, his only friends.

"6. The private, if not public, mutinous rabble; which ill ſpirit was ready, at all times, to be raiſed by a whiſper from any of thoſe worthy members, emphatically ſo called, if not excluſively; as if all juſtice, reformation and government, were only to be expected from them.

"7. The new, unheard-of ſtate-law, and logic, to ſtyle and believe That a Parliament, which is divided in itſelf, and ſevered from the King, the head thereof."

Many warm debates paſſed in the Houſe againſt the Parliament's raiſing armaments, and preparing for a civil war; Sir Benjamin Rudyard, in particular, ſpoke as follows:

"Mr. Speaker,

"That we may the better conſider the condition we are now in, let us ſet ourſelves three years back. If any man then could have credibly told us, that, within three years, the Queen ſhall be gone out of England into the Low Countries, for any cauſe whatſoever; the King ſhall remove from his Parliament, from

from London to York, declaring himſelf not to be ſafe here; that there ſhall be a total rebellion in Ireland; ſuch diſcords and diſtempers, both in church and ſtate here, as now we find: Certainly we ſhould have trembled at the thought of it; wherefore it is fit we ſhould be ſenſible now we are in it. On the other ſide; if any man then could have credibly told us, that within three years, ye ſhall have a *Parliament*, it would have been good news; that *ſhip-money* ſhall be taken away by an act of Parliament, the reaſons and grounds of it ſo rooted out, as that neither it, nor any thing like it, can ever grow up again; that *monopolies*, the *high commiſſion-court*, the *ſtar-chamber*, the *Biſhops votes*, ſhall be taken away; the *council-table* regulated and reſtrained; the *foreſts* bounded and limited; that ye ſhall have a *triennial Parliament*; nay, more than that, a *perpetual Parliament*, which none ſhall have power to diſſolve without yourſelves, we ſhould have thought this a dream of happineſs! Yet, now we are in the real poſſeſſion of it, we do not enjoy it, although his Majeſty hath promiſed and publiſhed he will make all this good to us. We ſtand chiefly upon further ſecurity; whereas the very having of theſe things is a convenient fair ſecurity, mutually ſecuring one another. There is more ſecurity offered, even in this laſt anſwer of the King's, by removing the perſonal votes of popiſh Lords, by the better education of Papiſts children, and by ſupplying the defects of the laws againſt recuſants; beſides what elſe may be enlarged and improved by a ſelect committee of both Houſes named for that purpoſe. Wherefore, Sir, let us beware we do not contend for ſuch a hazardous unſafe ſecurity, as may endanger the loſs of what we have already. Let us not think we have nothing, becauſe we have not all we deſire; and though we had, yet we cannot make a mathematical ſecurity; all human caution is ſuſceptible of corruption and failing; God's providence will not be bound, ſucceſs muſt be his: he that obſerves the wind and rain, ſhall neither ſow nor reap; if he do nothing till he can ſecure the weather, he will have but an ill harveſt."

In Auguſt 1642, the King, with great ceremony, ſet up his ſtandard at Nottingham, and made the following proteſtation at the head of his army:

"I do promiſe in the preſence of Almighty God, and as I hope for his bleſſing and protection, that I will to the utmoſt of my power defend and maintain *the true reformed Proteſtant religion, eſtabliſhed in the church of England*; and, by the grace of God, in the ſame will live and die.

"I deſire to govern by *the known laws of the land*, and that *the liberty and property of the ſubject* may be, by them, preſerved

with the ſame care as my own juſt rights. And if it pleaſe God, by his bleſſing upon this army raiſed for my neceſſary defence, to preſerve me from this rebellion, I do ſolemnly and faithfully promiſe, in the ſight of God, to maintain *the juſt privileges and freedom of parliament*; to govern by *the known laws of the land*, to my utmoſt power; and particularly to obſerve inviolably *the laws conſented to by me this Parliament*. In the mean while, if this time of war, and the great neceſſity and ſtraits I am now driven to, beget any violation of thoſe, I hope it ſhall be imputed, by God and Man, to the authors of this war, and not to me, who have ſo earneſtly laboured for the preſervation of *the peace of this kingdom*.

" When I willingly fail in theſe particulars, I will expect no aid or relief from any man, or protection from heaven: but in this reſolution I hope for the chearful aſſiſtance of all good men, and am confident of God's bleſſing."

Nevertheleſs, ſeveral meſſages paſſed between the King and Parliament, relating to propoſitions of peace, which proved ineffectual; and in October was fought the famous battle of Edgehill, in which both ſides claimed the victory.

It is obſervable, that many reſolutions of the Commons, ſo deeply affecting the conſtitution of this kingdom, were paſſed in a thin Houſe, wherein, upon the greateſt diviſion, not a third part of the members were preſent; many being with the King, and expelled for different reaſons; ſuch as for executing the commiſſion of array, or for not attending upon ſummons: and ſeveral important queſtions were carried upon a diviſion of only forty-two againſt twenty-ſeven.

This occaſioned the Commons to make an order, requiring the attendance of their members; and both houſes being aſſembled, it was agreed to petition the King for peace; but their overtures proved fruitleſs: whereupon they reſolved to call in the aſſiſtance of the Scots, and addreſſed a declaration to that kingdom; which drew an anſwer from the King, addreſſed to the Privy Council of Scotland.

The Parliament being in urgent want of money, made an ordinance for collecting an aſſeſſment of the *twentieth part of every man's property*, with power to the aſſeſſors to diſtrain upon the eſtates; and, in caſe of concealment, or oppoſition, to impriſon the perſons of ſuch as refuſed to pay the aſſeſſment. To ſuch calamity was the nation reduced, that men had then no ſecurity either for their property or perſons.

The civil war was carried on with various ſucceſs, and many priſoners were made on both ſides: ſeveral being taken by the royal

royal party at Brentford, Marlborough, and elſewhere, the King now reſolved to proceed againſt them in a legal way, for high treaſon. The famous Colonel John Lilburn was one of the firſt brought to the bar at Oxford, and indicted for actual levying war againſt the King. He was found guilty; but to prevent the execution of him and the reſt, the Parliament threatned the *lex talionis*; and publiſhed a declaration, ſetting forth their reſolution to make repriſals.

About this time a petition was ſent from ſeveral citizens of London to the Parliament, for peace; which was proteſted againſt by the Lord Mayor. Nevertheleſs, propoſitions for peace went on again, and being at length agreed to by the Lords, were ſent down to the Commons: but they lay in that houſe a month before their preſentment to the King, and were much altered from the Lords' copy. It will be worth the curious Reader's while to compare their copy with the alterations made by the Commons: from whence it will appear, that the former were moſt inclined to an agreement. Their diſpoſition to an accommodation appeared ſtrongly in many inſtances; for they prepared a bill relating to the militia, in which they receded from their former ordinances, and declared, "That the King ſhould not diſpoſe of the power of the militia without the Parliament, *nor the Parliament without the King*." Perhaps the noble Peers began to foreſee, that if they preſſed the ruin of the King, that of the Nobility would inevitably follow.

Hoſtilities, however, were ſo far from ceaſing during this treaty for peace, that ſome ſhips fitted out by the Parliament had ſhot at the houſe where the Queen lodged after her landing at Bridlington, in Yorkſhire, and had killed a man very near her Majeſty.

The Queen, however, arrived ſafe at York, and brought the King a conſiderable reinforcement; which ſo exaſperated the Commons, that they voted her guilty of high treaſon, and deſired the Lords to iſſue forth proclamations, to ſummon her to appear before them, and receive a trial and due ſentence for the ſame. An impeachment not very extraordinary, conſidering the ſtrange logic of thoſe times!

It cannot be denied, but that at the opening of this long Parliament, thoſe aſſertors of liberty deſerved the thanks of poſterity for the vigorous ſtand they made againſt the encroachments of arbitrary power, and the wiſe meaſures they purſued to reſtrain the prerogative within its *legal* bounds: but in the further progreſs of their oppoſition, they ſeem to have been conſcious to themſelves, that their actions would not bear the teſt of public examination. To prevent any ſuch ſcrutiny, theſe *patrons of*

freedom publiſhed an ordinance for reſtraining the *liberty of the preſs*, in which was the following remarkable clauſe.

"That no book, pamphlet, paper, nor part of any book, pamphlet, or paper, ſhall from henceforth be printed, bound, ſtitched, or put out to ſale, by any perſon or perſons whatſoever, *unleſs the ſame be firſt approved and* LICENCED, under the hands of ſuch perſons as both, or either of the ſaid Houſes ſhall appoint for licenſing the ſame; and be entered in the regiſter-book of the company of ſtationers, and the printer thereof to put his name thereto."

This extraordinary ſtroke at the very heart of Britiſh liberty, is a proof, that the public had little to expect from the determination of thoſe civil conflicts. Whether ſucceſs declared for the King or Parliament, *oppreſſion* ſeemed to be the lot of the people.

No juſt government will ever ſtand in fear of the liberty of the preſs, or wiſh to lay it under reſtraint. We cannot with too much jealouſy reſent any attempt towards the invaſion of this ineſtimable privilege. It has already undergone a cruel reſtriction, by the law for licenſing theatrical performances; and though the grand fortreſs of our liberties is not at preſent openly attacked, yet, we ought to keep a vigilant eye, and be ever watchful, leſt any deſign ſhould be ſet on foot to undermine it ſecretly. If duties ſhould be doubled, if litigious informations ſhould be multiplied, ſuch meaſures might, by ſlow degrees, ſap the foundation of our freedom, and produce the ſame effect as an arbitrary *licenſing clauſe*. We may hope, however, that no ſuch grounds of jealouſy will ever be afforded, under the preſent patriot adminiſtration.—But to return to our Authors.

A treaty for peace had been ſeveral times agitated; but the propoſitions were ſuch, as required the King to give up the church, to put the government of the militia entirely in the power of the Parliament, and to part with the right of fixing the great officers of ſtate, and other places of truſt under him; from whence we may conclude, that the framers of thoſe propoſitions had no ſincere views towards a pacification.

It was ſo evident, that the Commons in particular were averſe to peace, that all men were deterred from making any motions for that purpoſe. The *women* nevertheleſs, to the number of 3000, preſented a petition for peace to the Houſe of Commons, who received and read the ſame, and ſent out Sir John Hippeſley, and two or three members more, to return them an anſwer, "That the Houſe were no way enemies to *peace*, and that they did not doubt, in a ſhort time, to anſwer the end of their *petition*, and deſired them to return to their habitations." But the women, not ſatisfied, remained thereabouts, and, by noon, were increaſed

increaſed to 5000 at the leaſt; and ſome men of the rabble, in womens cloaths, mixed themſelves among them, and inſtigated them to go up to the Commons door, and cry *Peace, peace*; which they did accordingly, thruſting to the door of the Houſe, at the upper ſtairs-head. The trained band adviſed them to come down, and firſt pulled them; and afterwards, to fright them, ſhot powder: but they cried out, *Nothing but powder*; and ſome of them in the yard having brick-bats, threw them apace at the trained-band, who then ſhot bullets. Yet the women, not daunted, cried out the louder, at the door of the Houſe of Commons, *Give us thoſe traitors that are againſt peace, that we may tear them to pieces: give us that dog Pym, &c.*"

'Upon the whole, it appears to have been with ſome difficulty, and not without ſome bloodſhed alſo, that this mob of female petitioners was ſilenced and diſperſed.'

About this time the King was every where victorious, and was greatly blamed for not marching directly to London, which would, in all probability, have ended the war; the Parliament having no conſiderable body of an army together, and their party being involved in diviſions. But his unhappy fate, and the prevailing genius of Britiſh Freedom, concurred in directing him to lay ſiege to Glouceſter, which held out reſolutely; and in the end, the ſiege was raiſed by the Earl of Eſſex.

The Parliament had now concluded the ſolemn *league and covenant* with the Scots, who were preparing to march into *England* againſt the King; from which his Majeſty endeavoured by all poſſible means to diſſuade and deter them. The French King likewiſe ſent a letter to the Council of Scotland to engage them not to enter England in arms; but all applications proved ineffectual.

The Commons now began to act with unlimited authority. They ordered a *new great ſeal* to be made, even before they gained the concurrence of the Lords, whoſe power they viſibly deſpiſed.

The kingdom at this time groaned under inſupportable taxes and oppreſſions. The Parliament impoſed heavy exciſe duties, they appointed a committee of ſequeſtrations, to ſequeſter the eſtates of all ſuch as oppoſed the Parliament, and raiſed money by every kind of arbitrary method. The King alſo was obliged to get ſupplies by means equally unjuſtifiable: but to give a better countenance to his meaſures, he ſummoned a convention at Oxford; ſo that this nation was curſed with a divided government, who agreed in nothing but in oppreſſing the miſerable ſubjects.

[*To be continued.*]

The

The ancient and preſent State of the County of Kerry. Being a Natural, Civil, Eccleſiaſtical, Hiſtorical, and Topographical Deſcription thereof. Illuſtrated with Remarks made on the Baronies, Pariſhes, Towns, Villages, Seats, Mountains, Rivers, Harbours, Bays, Roads, Medicinal Waters, Foſſils, Animals, and Vegetables; with uſeful Notes and Obſervations on the further Improvement of this Part of Ireland. Embelliſhed with a large Map of the County from an actual Survey; a perſpective View of the Lake of Killarney, and other Plates. Undertaken with the Approbation of the Phyſico-Hiſtorical Society. By Charles Smith, Author of the Natural and Civil Hiſtories of the Counties of Cork and Waterford. 8vo. 6s. 6d. Dublin Printed, and ſold by Faulkener, Wilſon, &c.

IT is with great pleaſure we perceive, that the very ingenious and indefatigable Mr. Smith proceeds in his Hiſtory and Survey of the Iriſh Counties. His firſt Eſſay, as ſome of our Readers may, perhaps, remember, was the County of Waterford; of which we gave an account in the Review for September, 1751. The ſecond was the Hiſtory of Cork, in two volumes, mentioned alſo in the ſame Number of the Review: the county of Kerry makes the third, and, we hope, not the laſt publication of this kind, under the countenance of the Phyſico-Hiſtorical Society.—But we are ſorry to hear that this excellent Inſtitution does not continue in a flouriſhing ſtate, and that Mr. Smith has been of late leſs vigorouſly ſupported in his difficult undertaking, than he had reaſon to expect, from the encouragement he at firſt met with from that Society. 'Theſe branches of knowlege, ſays he, (in his Dedication of the preſent volume to the late Lord Chancellor of Ireland) cannot be purſued without viſiting and ſurveying every ſpot, which requires more time, labour, and expence, than moſt private perſons qualified for the taſk can beſtow. While a Society ſubſiſted for the ſupport of theſe inquiries, I met, my Lord, with their aſſiſtance, encouragement, and even their thanks, for the deſcription of ſuch counties as I have hitherto publiſhed; but their meetings have been ſo long diſcontinued, that I am left either to ſtruggle by myſelf through every difficulty attending this undertaking, or, to deſiſt from a purſuit that has coſt me ſo many years labour to bring to ſome perfection.'

In his Introduction, alſo, Mr. Smith laments the decay of the Phyſico-Hiſtorical Society. 'This kingdom,' ſays he, 'like 'the *ultima Thule* of the antients, ſtill remains in obſcurity to 'the reſt of the learned world, who are ſtill amuſed with fables,

'and

'and very falſe and ſcandalous accounts of it. And this ſeems 'to be at preſent, the only country in Europe, ſo much want-'ing in public ſpirit, that it is incapable of keeping up a Society 'of Gentlemen, who may meet at proper intervals for ſuch 'laudable purpoſes, as the above-mentioned Societies are en-'gaged in:'—meaning the French Academies at Paris, Bourdeaux, &c. with thoſe of Florence and Leipſic; and the Royal and Antiquarian Societies of London.

The utility of ſuch undertakings as that in which this induſtrious and learned Gentleman hath been ſo laudably employed, is very juſtly ſet forth towards the cloſe of his introductory diſcourſe, as follows.

'By an undertaking of this kind, if it could be carried on through the kingdom with any tolerable degree of exactneſs, many advantages would ariſe, a few of which I ſhall beg leave to ſet down. The variety of ſoils and lands may be readily pointed out and diſcovered; the number, capacities, and employments of the inhabitants eſtimated; the intrinſic and accidental differences of each part of the kingdom be known: for inſtance, the geometrical contents, figure, and ſituation of all the lands of Ireland, according to their natural, permanent, and conſpicuous bounds; the quantity, kinds, and value of the product of each diſtrict may be found, which is what I call their intrinſic value; the extrinſic is, why a parcel of land lying near a large town, ſhall be double in value to a parcel of land of the ſame extent and goodneſs, but further off. How many people there are of each ſex, age, ſtate, religion, trade, rank, or degree, by which means trade and government may be made more certain and regular: for if the number of people were known, the conſumption they made might be known, ſo as trade might not be expected where it is impoſſible to ſubſiſt: for if the inhabitants are thin, who neither work themſelves, nor employ others, and conſume, in proportion to their numbers, few things beſide their own product, which is too much the caſe of the bulk of the natives of the county I am now about to deſcribe, they are unfit ſubjects of trade, let their other conveniencies be what they will. If theſe enquiries were properly made, and communicated to the public, it would appear that few of the people work upon neceſſary labours and callings, and thoſe chiefly among the poor and middle ſort; for how many women and children do nothing, and only learn, inſtead of handling the wheel and the diſtaff, to ſpend what others earn? how many are employed on an idle, lazy attendance on others? and how few are occupied in raiſing neceſſary food, and making clothing? both which neceſſaries, we from our indolence im-

port

port in large quantities from abroad. Without the knowlege of theſe particulars, it is impoſſible to eſtimate to what height the trade and wealth of the kingdom may be extended. The treaſure ariſing from the impoſts on imported commodities, though very conſiderable, cannot poſſibly effect it, as they are an heavy ballance againſt us; nor will an eſtimate of the value of our exports do it, as they are but a ſmall part of what products might be raiſed, and are only proportionable to the idle and induſtrious hands, and the cultivated and uncultivated lands in the kingdom. Strangers to the country, who may eſtimate its riches by the ſplendour they ſee in our capital city, will likewiſe be miſtaken, and form a very wrong eſtimate of the other parts of this iſland: For as its wealth is conſiderable, yet being entirely in the hands of a few perſons, many of whom parade it beyond their incomes, the reſt of its people are impoveriſhed in proportion, and conſequently are leſs able to ſet up manufactures, or purſue agriculture to any purpoſe; whereby they are unable alſo to pay taxes, which in all countries at laſt ariſe from the labouring part of mankind, and not from the Gentry and better ſort, whoſe incomes alſo ſpring from the labour of the poor, they being but a ſmall part of the community, in proportion to the lower rank of the people. Hence, either the public runs into debt, if taxes are laid upon trade higher than it can bear; or the poor being oppreſſed, raiſe unſufferable complaints againſt all taxes that may affect them.'

Let us now turn to the Hiſtory itſelf; from which we ſhall ſelect, as a ſpecimen, the Author's very agreeable deſcription of the Lake of Killarney, in the barony of Magunihy, in the county of Kerry.

'The eaſtern parts adjoining to the county of Cork, are coarſe and mountainous; and beſides the mountains of Slievelogher, which, in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, were eſteemed impaſſable, as the Writer of Pacata Hibernia informs us, it comprehends alſo the territory called Glanfleſk, which hath been of late years much improved, incloſed, and cultivated.——

'Glanfleſk anciently belonged to O-Donoghoe: it is now moſtly the eſtate of Lord Kenmare, and is capable of being rendered as well cultivated a tract as moſt others in the country. The new turnpike road from Cork to Killarney, has been carried through it, which is of great advantage to all theſe parts, by rendering the carriage of butter, and other commodities, to and from that city, infinitely more expeditious and cheaper than formerly.

'This country is watered by the river Fleſk for many miles from

from east to west, which river disembogues itself into Lough-lane, commonly called the lake of Killarney.

'The south side of Glanflesk is bounded by lofty mountains, that divide the counties of Cork and Kerry, and which run in divers ridges to the sea, or rather to the head of Bantry-bay, and the river of Kenmare.

'The mountain of Mangerton, which stands south-east of Lough-lane, is esteemed one of the highest in this kingdom: by the experiment of the barometer, its altitude was found to be one thousand and twenty yards perpendicular above the lake of Killarney, which is considerably higher than the sea; for that lake in discharging itself, runs a course of some miles, and forms what is called the river Lane, before it joins the ocean.

'The mountains called the Reeks, which lie to the west of Mangerton, seem, by the eye, to be rather higher than that mountain; but hills which are conical, and terminated in points, appear higher at a distance than those mountains which have a large surface on their tops: as steeples which are terminated by spires, seem to be higher than those covered with domes, the points of the former being, as it were, more hid and lost in the atmosphere than the other.

'They are steeper than Mangerton, and have more terrible precipices, and declivities; so that it was in a manner impossible to determine their height by the barometer.

'On the west side of that mountain is a large and deep hole, filled with water, which they call the Devil's Punch-bowl: it overflows, and makes an agreeable cascade down the side of the mountain, in view of Mucruss house, the seat of Edward Herbert, Esq; By opening a larger cut on the side of this bason, there would be a broader, more constant and nobler supply of water, which might afford a beautiful cataract, for the greatest part of the year. This water supplies the mills for the iron works, and then falls into Lough-lane, which beautiful lake I am now about to describe.'

One of the best prospects which it affords, and that from whence the perspective view given by our Author was taken, is on a rising ground, near the ruined cathedral of Aghadoe: not, says he, 'but there are many other fine views of it, from every other side, but few of them take in so many particulars, as may be observed from that station. For from hence is to be seen one of the most delicious landscapes in Ireland; and, perhaps, few countries in Europe afford better. But this is such a masterpiece, that even the Pouffins, Salvator Rosa, or the most eminent painter in that way, might here furnish himself with sufficient matter, not only

to

to form one, but ſeveral entertaining proſpects. From this eminence a ſurvey may be taken of the greateſt part of this beautiful lake; and likewiſe of that ſtupendous amphitheatre of mountains which are ranged along the oppoſite ſhores.

'Towards the ſouth-eaſt ſtands the above-mentioned mountain called Mangerton, whoſe feet the lake waſhes, and whoſe ſummit is generally loſt in the clouds, it being, from the above-recited experiment, juſtly eſteemed one of the higheſt mountains in Ireland. More towards the center of the lake, is an high mole, called Turk, whoſe ſides down to the verge of the water, are beautifully cloathed with groves of various kinds of trees. One part of this hill ſlopes away like a promontory terminating in the lake, forming one ſide of a canal, which is a paſſage into the upper lake; as doth the point of another mountain called Glenna, the other ſide of this ſtraight, which is adorned alſo with foreſt trees. As a fine contraſt to this verdure, at the backs of theſe mountains, ſtand others, ſhaped into pyramids, being only naked rocks of a vaſt height.

'The grandeur and magnificence of theſe mountains, not only entertain and ſurprize the ſpectator, but he muſt be alſo agreeably amuſed, in contemplating the infinite variety of beautiful colouring they afford. For in one part may be ſeen the gayeſt verdure, blended with ſcarlet fruit, and ſnowy bloſſoms, well known properties of the Arbutus; and in other places the moſt elegant variety of brown and yellow tints, cauſed by other kinds of trees and ſhrubs, appears: all theſe are intermixed with rock-work; and to ſoften the whole, a deep, ſmooth, and noble baſon of water extends itſelf beneath this ſcenary. But to give the reader an adequate idea of this place, would require the pencil of ſome excellent painter, rather than the pen of any proſe Writer.

'To the weſt of Glenna ſtands the lofty pike called Tomiſh, variegated half way to its top with a waring foreſt; and down whoſe ſides, eſpecially after rains, run very conſiderable cataracts into the great lake. There are many other hills ſtill running more weſt, as far as the eye can trace for many miles: The neareſt and moſt ſurprizing for their loftineſs, are the Reeks already mentioned, whoſe tops reſemble ſo many pinnacles, or rather ſpires loſt in the clouds. This lower lake is eſtimated at eight miles in length, and its breadth at four; but it is not ſo large, as will appear by meaſuring it on the map, where its true ſhape is delineated. It is very deep in many parts, and the water is ſufficiently clear.——

'The

"The water is light and pure, and notwithſtanding the great variety of minerals which ſurround this lake, it doth not ſeem to be impregnated with any of them. The antient verſes of Nenius, who wrote in the ninth century, and which Mr. O-Flaherty, in his Ogygia, alſo cites, make mention of them.

Momonia ſtagnum, Lochlenius undiq. Zonis
Quatuor ambitur: prior eſt ex ære, ſecunda
Plumbea, de rigido conflatur tertia ferro:
Quarta renidenti palleſcit linea ſtanno.

"As for copper, few mines in Europe have produced ſuch a quantity of ore, as that work lately diſcovered near Mucruſs, having afforded in the ſpace of a year after its working, three hundred ſeventy-five tuns of ore, which produces from an ounce of the general ſample, five penny weight eight grains of copper, being conſiderably more than a fourth part of pure metal of a very fine quality; and the Briſtol company, to whom the proprietors of this work ſold it, muſt have extracted a greater proportion of copper, as it is well known from the laws of attraction, that a large portion of ore will yield more on the aſſay, than a ſmall quantity.

"Lead ore hath been alſo diſcovered near this lake; and the adjacent mountains all abound with iron. As to tin ore, there hath been no diſcovery made yet to any purpoſe, although I do not queſtion but it will be alſo found, for I have picked up ſmall ſpecimens of ore, which contain ſome tin, at no great diſtance from this lake; and thus far are the above cited ancient verſes verified.

"O-Flaherty alſo takes notice, that pearls have been found in this lake, "*Et in eo ſtagno margaritæ multæ reperiuntur, quas ponunt reges in auribus ſuis.*" But becauſe of the great depth of the lough, they are not ſo frequently found in it, as in the river Lane which runs out of it.

"As one ſide of this lake conſiſts of the abovementioned range of formidable hills, ſo the oppoſite ſide is adorned with a level and beautiful country, with the town of Killarney, and the habitations and improvements of ſeveral Gentlemen, at different diſtances. But before I deſcribe theſe, it will be neceſſary to mention ſomewhat of the ſeveral iſlands which lye beautifully ſcattered over the lake; as alſo of the ſurprizing echoes that it affords.

"The moſt noted of theſe iſlands is that of Roſs, which is rather a peninſula, being only ſeparated by a ſmall cut through a moraſs,

morass, from the main land, over which is a bridge. On it stands an ancient castle, formerly the seat of O-Donaghoe Ross, which hath a new barrack adjoining to it. This place hath been for some years past a military garrison, having a Governor appointed for it upon the establishment. Before the castle are a few old dismounted iron guns, which give it something of the air of a fortification. The castle had been flanked with round turrets, which, together with its situation, rendered it a place of some strength. In the wars of 1641, it surrendered to Ludlow, who was attended in the expedition by Lord Broghil, and Sir Hardress Waller; and was the last place that held out in Munster, against the English Parliament. The greatest part of this island is covered with wood; and it is no disagreeable spot, for such Gentlemen of the army quartered here, who are fond of fishing, hunting, or fowling.

'The island of Innisfallen is next to Ross in quantity of land; in it are the ruins of a very ancient religious house, founded by St. Finian, surnamed the Leper, who flourished towards the middle of the sixth century. He is the patron saint of these parts, and to him the cathedral of Aghadoe is also dedicated.

'The remains of this abbey are very extensive, although the walls in many places are levelled to the ground; its situation was extremely romantic and retired. Upon the dissolution of religious houses, the possessions of this abbey were granted to Captain Robert Collam.

'This island contains about twelve acres, and hath several very pleasant coves agreeably wooded for landing upon it. It yields so great a profusion of sweet herbage, that the kine which are put into it to fatten, thrive so prodigiously, that their fat becomes a kind of rich marrow in a very short time. The more fleshy parts are in a manner marbled with fat, but their tallow is too soft to make candles, though it is proper enough for soap. On the east side of the island, the walls of an old chapel have been lately repaired by some Gentlemen, who frequently use it as a banqueting-house. There are besides timber trees, the remains of several fruit trees, as plumbs, pears, &c. which have outlived the desolation that hath seized on the cells of those Recluses who first planted them.

'Many of these trees had fruit ripe on them when I was in the island; the plumbs in particular, being of a large red kind, were very fine. Here are also the fruit of the Sorbus or Service tree, likewise the Arbutus, and other shrubs, which were all planted by the Monks, tho' the neighbouring inhabitants will have them to be the spontaneous production of the soil. In short, it is a beautiful, romantic wilderness, decorated at present with these plantations,

plantations, and its venerable ruins, which are no ſmall addition to the beauties of Lough-Lane.

'Rabbit-Iſland ſtands to the weſt of Innisfallen, and is chiefly remarkable for its quarries of good lime-ſtone, which the neighbouring inhabitants dig, and burn, in order to manure their ground: but the beſt lime-ſtone in this barony is dug at Caſtle-Fiery, not far from the river Mang.

'An infinite number of iſlands of a ſmaller ſize, ſpangle and adorn this lake, moſt of which are covered with Arbutus, and ſeveral other beautiful ſhrubs. One of them, from a fancied repreſentation, reſembles, at ſome diſtance, the figure of an horſe in a drinking poſture. Another is called O-Donoghoe's Priſon; and a third his Garden: moſt of them are of marble, cloathed with evergreen ſhrubs, growing out of the crevices of the rocks. Some of the iſlands in the upper lake are of ſuch a ſtupendous height, that they reſemble, at a diſtance, ſo many lofty towers ſtanding in the water, and being many of them crowned with wreaths of Arbutus, repreſent the ruins of ſtately palaces. Their edges are ſo much worn away, by the daſhing of the water againſt their ſides, and by frequent rains waſhing away the earth, and time hath ſo disjointed many of the marble rocks, that ſeveral of them hang in a moſt ſurprizing and tottering manner, and repreſent a rude kind of confuſed architecture, almoſt without foundations.

'In others of them, the waters have worn paſſages ſufficiently large for boats to go through: theſe totterſng arches, which in ſome places (though they are of an immenſe weight) are only upheld by very ſlender pillars.

'The Arbutus, which cloaths theſe iſlands, gives even the haggard winter the beautiful appearance of ſpring; for in that melancholy ſeaſon this tree puts on its higheſt bloom; which rarely growing in other places, is the more likely to be admired by ſtrangers in this. The preparation of charcoal, for the iron works, hath been the occaſion of a great deſtruction of this beautiful tree in other parts of the country; and it is ſaid, that even here, it ſuffered much by an accidental fire that laid waſte a great part of a foreſt. Its growth upon rocks of marble, where no earth appears, and ſo high above the ſurface of the water, renders it a matter of both ſurprize and pleaſure*.

'This

* 'The Arbutus, ſaith Sir Thomas Mollyneux, (in the Philoſophical Tranſactions, No. 227.) is not to be found any where, of ſpontaneous growth, nearer to Ireland than the moſt ſouthern parts of France, Italy, and Sicily; and there too, it is never known but as a

'This tree is extremely agreeable in every different circumſtance of vegetation, for it hath at one and the ſame time ripe and green fruit upon its branches, which, as they approach to ripeneſs from green, become yellow, and at length terminate in a fine ſcarlet colour, reſembling in form a field ſtrawberry, though in ſize, that of the beſt garden kind.

'The bloſſoms grow in cluſters of ſmall white bells, not unlike thoſe of the lily of the valley; and in ſuch great abundance, as in that reſpect alone to be equal in beauty to the Lauruſtinus, and in other reſpects much ſuperior to it: for the agreeable verdure of the leaves, not much unlike the Bay, the ſcarlet hue of the tender part of the ſtalk, and all the different ſtages of vegetation, at one and the ſame time, from the knitting fruit to perfect ripeneſs, cannot but be exceedingly agreeable to the curious obſerver.

'Upwards of forty iſlands in this lake are covered with an intermixture of theſe trees and other ſhrubs; beſides at leaſt a fourth part of the aſcent of the mountains, the verges of whoſe baſes, like that of Mangerton, and others before mentioned, are waſhed by the water of this lake.

'Thus having mentioned what was remarkable of the mountains which ſurround it, and of the lake itſelf, and its iſlands, I ſhall beg leave to apply the following lines of the Poet, whoſe deſcription of the lake Pergus, is no ill picture of Lough-Lane.

——— Non illa plura Caiſtros
Carmina Cignorum labentibus audit in undis.
Silva coronat aquas, cingens latus omne; ſuiſque
Frondibus, ut velo, Phœbéos ſubmovet ignes.
Frigora dant rami, Tyrios humus humida flores,
Perpetuum ver eſt.

OVID. METAM. Lib. V.

Frutex or Shrub: whereas, in the rocky parts of the county of Kerry about Lough-Lane, and in ſome of the rocky mountains adjacent, where the people of the country call it the Cane Apple, it flouriſhes naturally to that degree as to become a large tall tree. Petrus Bellonius obſerves, that it doth ſo in Mount Athos in Macedonia; and Juba is quoted by Pliny, as mentioning it as a thing extraordinary, that the Arbutus grows to an high tree in Arabia. Dr Mollyneux adds, that the trunks of the trees in Ireland have been frequently four feet and a half in circumference, or eighteen inches diameter; and that the trees grow to about nine or ten yards in height; and in ſuch plenty, that many of them have been cut down to melt and refine the ore, of ſilver and lead mines diſcovered near Roſs Caſtle. Thus far the Doctor.

'The

'The principal inhabitants of theſe lofty mountains, except a few Woodmen, kept in theſe foreſts by the Lord of the Soil, are great herds of red deer: the chaſe of which affords a much higher gratification to the ſportſman than in moſt other places. For when a ſtag is hunted near this lake, nothing can be more agreeably ſurprizing, than the repeated echoes; it being ſcarce poſſible to diſtinguiſh the real clangor of the French horns, or the true cry of the dogs, from the numberleſs reverberations of them among the rocks and mountains.

Inceptus clamor fruſtratur hiantes. VIRGIL.

'And we may alſo juſtly apply to the unharbouring of the deer, what the ſame Poet more metaphorically ſings of Cæſar.

Ipſi lætitiâ voces ad ſidera jactant
Intonſi montes: ipſæ jam carmina rupes,
Ipſa ſonant arbuſta:———

'To which may not be improperly added the following lines of a modern Poet.

Hark! the loud peal begins the clam'rous joy,
The gallant chiding loads the trembling air.
Ye Naiads fair, who o'er theſe floods preſide,
Raiſe up your dripping heads above the waves,
And hear our melody. Th' harmonious notes
Float with the ſtream; and every winding creek
And hollow rock, that o'er the dimpling flood
Nods pendant; ſtill improve from ſhore to ſhore
Our ſweet reiterated joys. What ſhouts,
What clamours loud! what gay heart-chearing ſounds
Urge through the breathing braſs their mazy way!
Not choirs of Tritons glad with ſprightlier ſtrains,
The dancing billows; when proud Neptune rides
In triumph o'er the deep.———

SOMERVILE's Chace, B. IV. v. 401, &c.

'The echoes which are cauſed by this ſport, reverberate the ſound in a manner not to be deſcribed, nor believed by any but by thoſe who have heard them; the whole duration of a ſingle ſound being near a minute; and yet the repercuſſions are innumerable, and the variety inconceivable. But the Reader may from this imagine, that a moſt ſurprizing muſical effect muſt ariſe from the variety of notes iſſuing from the throats of a large pack of buck-hounds, enlivened by the chearing ſhouts of the ſportſmen, and the noiſe of the horns.

'From the mountains the ſtag often flies to the ſoil for refreſhment, where he is ſometimes taken by perſons who attend in boats to caſt a rope over the horns; or the poor animal is purſued

to ſome iſland, where he is killed; or being refreſhed by ſwimming is hunted again to the mountains: in all, and every of which places, particularly towards the upper lake, the echoes are prodigiouſly grand.

'But the moſt aſtoniſhing ſounds, emulating thunder, are thoſe made by the diſcharge of cannon, placed in a proper ſituation, upon the points of ſome particular iſlands, which may beſt anſwer to the concave ſides of the mountains. When the piece is firſt exploded, there is no return of any particular ſound for near a minute; but then a loud clap of thunder, which laſts for ſeveral ſeconds, enſues; and, after a ſhort pauſe, a ſecond, and ſo on, for ſeveral repetitions; like vollies of ſmall arms, which are alternately anſwered from the neighbouring mountains and valleys, and at length die away, with a noiſe reſembling that of the waves of the ocean beating againſt a concave ſhore. Nothing could be more pleaſant than the ringing of a peal of bells placed in a ſmall iſland in this lake, which would ſeem to be more numerous than all thoſe of a great city, by being anſwered by numberleſs imaginary bells from the neighbouring rocks. But this, with ſeveral other methods of improving the natural beauties of the lake, particularly the placing tame ſwans on it, and other embelliſhments, is ſubmitted to its owner; who, by adding, if poſſible, to its native elegancy, might render it more pleaſing to travellers, who may be induced out of curioſity to viſit it, and which would be of great advantage to the adjacent town of Killarney.

'There have been but few countries in Europe that have not contrived means to draw a concourſe of people to viſit them, whoſe very travelling and intercourſe increaſe wealth and trade; and are a ſecret motive to induce inhabitants to come and ſettle in them.

'A river falls from the upper into the lower lake, diſcharging itſelf between the mountains of Glenna and Turk, between which hills is one of the moſt romantic glins that can be conceived. The trees on both ſides ſeem to overſhadow this paſſage, which is a kind of watry defile for ſome miles in length, and admits of a conſiderable variety; being deep and ſmooth in ſome places, and in others rocky and ſhallow; at which laſt, the paſſengers diſembark, and the boat is forced by ſtrength of men's arms, under a kind of arch. The uſing of ſails is here dangerous, on account of the mountain ſqualls, their ſides hanging directly over the river, which in this place is almoſt too narrow even for oars. The ſtupenduous rock called the Eagle's Neſt, noted alſo for a fine echo, is commonly a place of refreſhment to paſſengers, who here enjoy the grateful ſhade of

of the Arbutus, Yews, Hollies, and many other trees, that cover the rocks in this canal, ſeveral of which hang dreadfully over its ſides; and, no doubt, had a perſon ſufficient leiſure thoroughly to ſearch up the ſides of this glin and the adjacent places, which would require vaſtly more time, labour, and expence, than the encouragement given to works of this nature will afford; abundance of curious diſcoveries might certainly be made here in the botanical way, eſpecially in the adjacent foreſts.

'The boatmen have given imaginary names to theſe rocks, as to one the Man of War; a rock which, in ſome ſort repreſents the hull of a large veſſel, the maſt and rigging of which is no other than a large branching Yew at the top. Having at length paſſed this long and narrow ſtraight, the upper lake is diſcovered, which is ſurrounded on all ſides with mountains of an amazing height, beautified alſo with woods: for here, according to Milton,

——— Over head up grow
Inſuperable height of loftieſt ſhade,
Cedar, and pine, and fir, and branching palm,
A ſylvan ſcene; and as the ranks aſcend
Shade above ſhade, a woody theatre
Of ſtatelieſt view ———————
Luxuriant: Mean while murmuring waters fall
Down the ſlope hills, diſperſt, or in a lake,
——————— Unite their ſtreams.

Paradiſe Loſt, Book IV.

'This upper lake is an oblong ſquare, extending north and ſouth, but is not a third of the area of the lower lake. The rocks and iſlands are here inhabited by eagles, oſpreys, hawks, and other birds of prey; as are the foreſts on the adjacent mountains, with red deer.

'In certain ſeaſons very conſiderable water-falls and caſcades, tumble from the mountains into this upper lake, which, with the echoes, and delightful ſcenery of the proſpect, are alſo the chief entertainment of this place, as in the lower lake. In one of theſe iſlands travellers generally take a repaſt, for few people go ſo far into theſe wilds without laying in proviſions before hand. The manner of returning is, either back through the ſame ſcene, or on horſeback over the mountain, on a new road, which was made by ſubſcription of the principal Gentlemen of the county.——

'Towards the ſouthern part of the lake, ſituated on a kind of peninſula, ſtands Mucruſs, the ſeat of Edward Herbert, Eſq; a ſituation where nature in her native attire, very little aſſiſted by

art, out does every thing that human fancy, ſupported with the higheſt expence, hath yet performed; for whether we firſt reflect on the delightful proſpects that this ſeat affords, as the lofty mountains hanging over the lake, wooded almoſt to their ſummits; caſcades pouring down from ſeveral of them, particularly that already noticed from Mangerton, which ſends down a roaring torrent not far diſtant; the beautiful expanſe of water which waſhes the verge of this Gentleman's gardens and improvements, ſcattered over with iſlands, ſo wooded as to repreſent ſeveral well cultivated ſpots; alſo a particular lake called Mucruſs lake, divided by that peninſula from the great one; and on the oppoſite ſhore, a level, well improved country: I ſay, whether we take in at one view all this inchanting ſcenery, or ſtop to admire the particular beauties of the ſeat itſelf, we ſhall find ſufficient matter for pleaſure and admiration. The natural appearance of this place, before it was adorned by any improvement, was that of a luxuriant garden; where a great variety of trees and ſhrubs, the produce only of a more favourable clime, flouriſhed ſpontaneouſly; as the Arbutus, Juniper, Yew, Buckthorn, Service, and others, found growing among the crevices of marble rocks: the ſeeds, and original plantation of which I ſuſpect to have been laid here, many centuries ago, by the Monks of the adjacent abbies; where meeting with a ſoil and climate favourable to their preſervation and propagation, they have wonderfully flouriſhed ever ſince, without any aſſiſtance from art.

'Theſe natural gardens, therefore, wanted little aſſiſtance to beautify them, except an incloſure towards the land, and the lopping away part of their luxuriance, to form avenues and walks through them; beſides the addition of ſuch exotics as have been but of late years introduced into Ireland: among which there have been planted a conſiderable number of vines, which are now ſpreading their branches, and crawling up ſeveral ſloping rocks of variegated marble.

'It was, indeed, an handſome compliment which was paid to this place, by a late Right Reverend Prelate*, whoſe high taſte in the beauties of art and nature, as well as goodneſs of heart, and ſolid learning, all the world equally admired and acknowleged; who being aſked, what he thought of this ſeat, immediately anſwered, that the French Monarch might poſſibly be able to erect another Verſailles, but could not with all his revenues lay out another Mucruſs.

'The gardens of this ſeat extend to the ruins of an ancient friery called Irrelagh, i. e. on the lough, founded by Donald,

* Dr. Berkley, the late Biſhop of Cloyne.

ſon

ſon of Thady Mac Carty, in the year 1440, for Minorites, or conventual Franciſcans, and repaired by him in 1468, the year of his death. It was again re-edified in the year 1602, but ſoon after ſuffered to go to ruin. The walks are ſurrounded by a venerable grove of aſh trees, which are very tall, and in ſome places grow ſpontaneouſly, from the ruins of the abbey. The choir, nave, and ſteeple, ſtill remain entire, in which are ſeveral decayed tombs. The cloyſters are likewiſe entire, and conſiſt of ſeveral gothic arches of ſolid marble, which incloſe a ſmall ſquare, in the center of which ſtands one of the talleſt Yew trees I have ever ſeen; its ſpreading branches, like a great umbrella, overſhadow the niches of the whole cloyſter, forming a more ſolemn and awful kind of covering to it than originally belonged to the place. The ſteeple was ſmall, and capable of containing only a ſingle bell; and it is ſupported by a gothic arch or vault. The bell was not many years ago found in the adjacent lough, and, by the inſcription, was known to have belonged to this priory, which, from the time of its foundation, hath been the cemetery of the Mac Carty-Mores, and other families. Upon the diſſolution of religious houſes, the revenues and ſcite of this abbey were granted to Capt. Robert Collam, who aſſigned them to Biſhop Croſbie.———

'The town of Killarney is a ſmall thriving place, being conſiderably improved ſince the minority of its preſent owner, the Lord Viſcount Kenmare, who hath encouraged ſeveral inhabitants to ſettle in it, and hath erected ſome houſes for linen manufacturers, about a mile from the town. There are already four new roads finiſhed to this town, one from the county of Cork, which leads to that city; a ſecond from Caſtle-Iſland, which proceeds towards Limerick; the third is that to the river of Kenmare before mentioned; and a fourth is lately made to Caſtlemain; from which laſt place new roads have been carried to Tralee and Dingle. The neighbourhood of the mines affords employment for ſeveral people, and will conſequently cauſe a conſiderable ſum of money to be ſpent in it. A new ſtreet, with a large commodious inn, are deſigned to be built here; for the curioſities of the neighbouring lake, have of late drawn great numbers of curious travellers to viſit it, and, no doubt, many more will go thither to partake of the diverſions and amuſements of that place, when they can be aſſured of being commodiouſly and cheaply entertained.

'The principal ornament of Killarney is the ſeat and gardens of Lord Kenmare, planted with large nurſeries of fruit and timber trees. His Lordſhip propoſes to enlarge a canal, which runs through his gardens, and to make it communicate with the lake, which will not only render them more beautiful, but will alſo add to the convenience of water

carriage to and from the lake. Not far from the houſe is a large and pleaſant park, well wooded, and ſtocked with deer, which he hath alſo in plenty in the foreſts of the adjacent mountains.'

We are ſorry we could not communicate to our Readers, the ſame pleaſure we ourſelves received from Mr. Smith's deſcription of all this romantic and beautiful ſcenery, by the aſſiſtance of the copper-plate view of it that accompanies his book; but this is a diſadvantage to which the nature of our work too frequently ſubjects us, and to which both we and our Readers muſt ſubmit, as there is no remedy for it, that we know of.

We ought likewiſe to make ſome apology for omitting almoſt all the Notes with which our Author hath illuſtrated many parts of the foregoing deſcription, together with ſome parts of the deſcription itſelf: but this we were, in ſome meaſure, obliged to, in order to reduce the article within the bounds of *a Review.*

A Treatiſe on Madneſs. By William Battie, *M. D. Fellow of the College of Phyſicians in London, and Phyſician to St. Luke's Hoſpital.* 4to. 2s. 6d. Whiſton and White.

OF all the calamities incident to human nature, ſurely none is more deplorable than the deprivation of thoſe exalted faculties that more eſpecially diſtinguiſh the ſuperiority of Man over the reſt of the animal creation; nor can a more ſhocking object preſent itſelf to a benevolent mind, than

> To ſee that *noble* and *moſt ſovereign* REASON,
> Like ſweet bells jangled, *out of tune* and *harſh!*

To what better purpoſe then can the intelligent Phyſiologiſt devote his labours, than to inveſtigate the cauſes and effects of theſe truly affecting diſorders? Or can the art of healing be more uſefully employed, than in endeavouring to relieve ſo terrible, and, indeed, at preſent, ſo frequent, a malady? Nevertheleſs, this diſeaſe, as Dr. Battie juſtly obſerves, has been, perhaps, as little underſtood as any that ever afflicted mankind.—Whether its nature and conſequences are ſufficiently elucidated in the work now before us, we ſhall not preſume to determine; the attempt to develope ſo important, and ſo abſtruſe, a ſubject, is meritorious; and the candid manner in which our Author has proſecuted his diſquiſition (notwithſtandingh is having oppoſed ſome favourite opinions) entitles him to reſpect. Hence, it is apprehended,

hended, a more particular analyſis of this performance will not be diſagreeable to our Readers.

Our Author, in his firſt ſection, propoſes to give a more preciſe idea of his ſubject than has been commonly received; in order to which he obſerves, that 'no definition of Madneſs can be ſafe, which does not, with regard at leaſt to ſome particular ſymptoms, determine what it is not, as well as what it is.'

From this poſition, which will hold equally good of all other definitions, he infers, 1ſt. 'Though too great and too lively a perception of objects that really exiſt, creates an uneaſineſs not felt by the generality of men, and therefore diſcovers a preternatural ſtate in the inſtruments of ſenſation, and tho' ſuch uneaſineſs frequently accompanies Madneſs, and is therefore ſometimes miſtaken for it; nevertheleſs anxiety is no more eſſentially annexed to Madneſs, ſo as to make part of our complex idea, than fever, head-ach, gout, or leproſy. Witneſs the many inſtances of happy mad-men, who are perfectly eaſy under what is eſteemed by every one but themſelves, the greateſt misfortune human nature is liable to.—2dly, Though too little, and too languid a perception of things that really exiſt, and are obtruded with force ſufficient to excite ſenſation in the generality of men, diſcovers as preternatural a ſtate or diſorder in the inſtruments of ſenſation as uncommon anxiety, and tho' it ſometimes attends Madneſs, and is likewiſe miſtaken for it, eſpecially by the French, who call mad-men and fools by the ſame name; nevertheleſs ſuch defect of ſenſation is no more eſſentially annexed to Madneſs, than the former ſymptom of anxiety, which that very frequent ſymptom of Madneſs ſufficiently proves.

'But——*Qui Species alias veris capiet, commotus habebitur*—and this by all mankind as well as the Phyſician: no one ever doubting, whether the perception of objects not really exiſting, or not really correſponding to the ſenſes, be a certain ſign of Madneſs. Therefore *deluded imagination*, which is not only an indiſputable, but an eſſential character of Madneſs, (that is, without which, all accidental ſymptoms being removed from our thoughts, we have no idea whatever remaining annexed to that ſound) preciſely diſcriminates this from all other animal diſorders: or that man, and that man alone, is properly mad, who is fully and unalterably perſuaded of the exiſtence, or of the appearance, of any thing which does not naturally exiſt, or does not actually appear to him, and who behaves according to ſuch erroneous perſuaſion.'

Having thus determined Madneſs to be a preternatural ſtate, or diſorder of ſenſation, the Doctor next contemplates the principles of *natural* ſenſation: the ſeat of which he [in ſect. 2.] fixes

fixes in 'the nervous or medullary ſubſtance, derived from, or rather communicating with, the Brain;'—and further inſiſts, 'that no other matter whatever, whether animated or not, is ſuch ſeat or inſtrument.'

In ſect. 3. are conſidered the *ſuppoſed* cauſes of natural Senſation. Here our Author, with a good deal of vivacity, controverts the hypotheſis that maintains, *the Brain to be a Gland; and its cortical ſubſtance to be a convolution of ſecretory veſſels, deſigned to ſeparate from the blood certain elementary ſubſtances; that the medullary portion of the brain and nerves is nothing elſe but a collection of excretory ducts, ſerving to convey this elementary matter to all the ſenſible parts of the body: which matter, either by undulation, or retrograde motion, imparts to the* Senſorium commune *all thoſe impulſes it receives from ſuch external objects as affect the extremities of the nervous filaments.*

This hypotheſis, though oppoſed by our Author, has, in ſome meaſure, received the ſanction of ſeveral great names. Dr. Battie, indeed, appears to have early rejected it*. It is not with us, at preſent, to enter into a defence of it, but to give his objection.

'As the ſecretion (he obſerves) of ſuch a nervous fluid, and conſequently its very exiſtence, depends entirely upon the analogy that is ſuppoſed to lie between the brain and every glandular ſubſtance, in caſe the brain is very unlike a gland in any material circumſtance, this whole machinery is immediately deſtroyed.

'Admitting, therefore, what has never yet been proved, that the cortical portion of the brain reſembles the ſecretory organ of a gland, yet the medullary, or nervous ſubſtance is different from all excretory ducts whatever: inaſmuch as no excretory duct is ever found but what is immediately detached from the gland whence it iſſues; whereas, on the contrary, the ſuppoſed glandular or ſecretory ſubſtance of the brain is continued to every part ſupplied with nerves, and theſe nerves, the ſuppoſed excretory ducts, after that they have left the cranium, and their glandular origin the brain, wherever they are capable of being examined, remain as cloſely connected, not only with the cortical or ſecretory portion of the brain, but even with the productions of the Dura and Pia Mater, as the medullary ſubſtance itſelf whilſt contained within the cranium.'

The common expreſſion, *weakneſs of nerves*, is alſo, in our Author's opinion, 'extremely deluſive, in as much as it ſeems

* See Review, vol. V. p. 403. vol. VII. p. 372. and vol. IX. p. 461.

indirectly

indirectly to offer another ſolution of the phænomenon in queſtion, and to aſcertain the cauſe of ſenſation.'—To this expreſſion it is objected, that ſeeing 'the word *weakneſs*, when joined with material ſubſtances, can convey no idea but a lax coheſion of ſuch particles as conſtitute thoſe ſubſtances; therefore the phraſe, *weakneſs of nerves*, which denotes a morbid exceſs of ſenſation, ſeems to imply that ſenſation itſelf is owing to the looſe coheſion of thoſe material particles which conſtitute the nervous ſubſtance, inaſmuch as the quantity of every effect muſt be proportionable to its cauſe.'

In ſect. 4, the Doctor propoſes to point out what appears to him to be the *real* cauſes of natural ſenſation. As upon this baſis the firmneſs of his ſuperſtructure depends, let him here, more immediately, be allowed to ſpeak for himſelf.

'In endeavouring to aſſign the cauſes of ſenſation, be it one of our chiefeſt cares to diſtinguiſh them from one another, as effectually in our mind as they are really different in their nature, and to ſeparate what we actually, and uſefully know, from what we are, and, perhaps, ſhall always be, without any great damage, entirely ignorant of.—For which purpoſe, it may not be amiſs to premiſe a few conſiderations on Cauſes in general.—

'Firſt then, by obſerving that any one phænomenon frequently follows another, we conclude, that the ſecond is owing to the firſt; and hence we get the ideas of Cauſe and Effect.—2dly, By obſerving, that any one phænomenon never fails to follow another, we conclude, that the firſt is not only a Cauſe, but alſo a ſufficient Cauſe of the ſecond.—3dly, By obſerving that the ſecond phænomenon never occurs but in conſequence of the firſt, we further conclude, that the firſt is not only a Cauſe, but a neceſſary Cauſe of the ſecond, which is therefore called the *Cauſa ſine qua non*.—4thly, By obſerving that the ſecond phænomenon follows the firſt without either the evident, or the demonſtrated intervention of any other phænomenon as neceſſary, or at leaſt as acceſſary to its exiſtence, we conclude that the firſt phænomenon is moreover the immediate Cauſe of the ſecond.—5thly, By obſerving either that the firſt phenomenon is not always ſucceeded by the ſecond, or that the ſecond is not always preceded by the firſt, we conclude, that the firſt phænomenon is either not a ſufficient, or not a neceſſary, but merely an accidental Cauſe of the ſecond.—6thly, By obſerving, or by admitting as undeniable, that any one or more phænomena intervene between the firſt and the laſt in queſtion, we plainly diſcover that the firſt is remote, and that the ſeveral other intervening phænomena, in their order, approach nearer and nearer to the immediate Cauſe.—7thly, A very little reflection upon Cauſes

and

and Effects, as thus ſtated, will make us conclude, that the remote and accidental Cauſes of any Effect may be many, but that the ſufficient and neceſſary, as well as the immediate Cauſe, can be but one. Since either of two Cauſes ſuppoſed ſufficient will render the other unneceſſary; and either Cauſe ſuppoſed neceſſary will render the other inſufficient. Which unavoidable concluſion, by the way, might be extended beyond ſecondary Agents, or Inſtruments, improperly called Cauſes, and would give an additional proof, if any was wanting, to the unity of the firſt, the neceſſary, the ſufficient, and, indeed ſtrictly ſpeaking, the ſole Cauſe of all things.

'Thus, to inſtance in our preſent ſubject; Sight, Hearing, Taſte, Smell, &c. which frequently ſucceed the application of external objects, are looked upon by us as the Effects of ſuch external objects; and we in common diſcourſe refer our ideas back to thoſe objects, as to their Cauſes, as when we ſay we ſee the ſun, we hear the drum, &c.

'But foraſmuch as the external objects of ſenſe, however forcible their application may be, do not always, and in all animal bodies create ſight, &c. And moreover, as the very ſame perceptions do ſometimes, at leaſt in diſordered ſubjects, ariſe without any external object that really affects them; it is impoſſible but every ſuch external object muſt be merely accidental, and by no means the ſufficient or the neceſſary Cauſe of ſuch its nervous Effects: which ſufficient and neceſſary Cauſe is therefore internal, that is, it inhæres in the very frame and conſtitution of the nervous ſubſtance itſelf; whereby alone ſuch ſubſtance is rendered capable of being affected by any external object ſo as to create ſenſation; and without which internal Cauſe nothing whatever would actually become an object of our ſenſes.

'For the ſame reaſon all ſuch external Cauſes are not only accidental, but likewiſe remote. Since the neceſſary and ſufficient Cauſe at leaſt muſt intervene; and beſides, before an external object can create any ſenſation whatever, it muſt produce ſeveral intermediate Effects, viz. Motion, Impulſe, and Preſſure: all which precede not only ſight, &c. thereby excited, but alſo precede that particular internal affection of the nerve itſelf, whatever it is, which is the immediate, the neceſſary, and the ſufficient Cauſe of ſuch perception.

'The accidental and remote Cauſes of ſenſation, as alſo their intermediate Effects, provided ſuch Effects are external to the nervous ſubſtance, very readily diſcover themſelves, and are clearly comprehended. For, indeed, they are all bodies that lie within our obſervation, (many of which are within our reach)

reach) and the motion and impulſe of thoſe bodies, or of particles emitted therefrom, upon the organs of ſenſe: which every one not only has a clear idea of, but is moreover certain of their exiſtence, motion, and impulſe.

'Now as no body whatever can be capable of creating ſenſation, in conſequence of its motion and impulſe, without preſſing upon the nerve affected by ſuch impulſe, therefore preſſure of the medullary ſubſtance contained in the nervous filaments, approaches nearer in order to the immediate cauſe of ſenſation, than the motion and impulſe of any external object.

'Preſſure of the medullary ſubſtance contained in the nervous filaments cannot, indeed, be imagined without ſome alteration in the former arrangement of thoſe material particles, which conſtitute that ſubſtance. But we have no idea whatever, either viſible or intellectual, how, and in what manner, thoſe particles are by ſuch preſſure differently juxtapoſited, previouſly to ſenſation thereby excited.

'Whence it undeniably follows, that preſſure upon the medullary ſubſtance contained in the nervous filaments, is the laſt in order of all thoſe Cauſes of ſenſation, which we have any idea of. Thus far, and no further, our knowlege in theſe matters reaches, limited by the outſide of the ſeat of ſenſation; what paſſes within being mere conjecture. For if a new poſition of medullary particles, which is an immediate and unavoidable Effect of external preſſure, does not diſcover itſelf any more than their conſtitutional arrangement; what account can we with any, the leaſt degree of modeſty, pretend to give of all the alterations in the nervous ſubſtance, ſtill ſubſequent to ſuch preſſure, and to change of place thereby occaſioned? a regular ſeries of which may, for any thing we know to the contrary, precede the immediate Cauſe of Senſation.'

The principal deſign of ſect. 5. is, to ſhew that thoſe ſenſations that are apparently attended with uneaſineſs, however they may ſeemingly be diſagreeable to nature, have not only their reſpective uſes, but that they are abſolutely neceſſary to our preſervation; and that even 'convulſion itſelf, a diſtempered exceſs of animal motion, which is a frequent Effect of uneaſy ſenſation, ſometimes becomes its ſudden and efficacious remedy, by removing the material Cauſe of ſuch uneaſy Senſation.'

Sect. 6 is employed in making a more particular enquiry into the Cauſes and Effects of Anxiety, and Inſenſibility.—The Cauſes of Anxiety are, according to our Author, either the too great, or too long continued force of external objects, or the ill conditioned ſtate of the nerve itſelf, whereby it is rendered liable

liable to be too much affected with the usual action of such external objects. Among the Effects of Anxiety are particularly mentioned Spasm, and the nervous disorder directly opposite to a preternatural excess of sensation, *viz.* Insensibility.—Other Causes of Insensibility here distinguished, are, an imperfect formation, or subsequent degeneration, of the nervous or medullary substance, and the too close compactness of the fibres that compose the integuments or membranes intended to sheath the medullary substance.

The two immediately preceding sections contain several judicious and striking remarks, which it has been thought necessary to pass over for the sake of coming at the professed subject, which, strictly speaking, is not discussed till sect 7; in which, and in the succeeding section, the Doctor considers the Causes of MADNESS. The premises respecting the seat and causes of natural and true sensation being admitted, our Author apprehends must induce an acknowlegement, that 'the one immediate necessary and sufficient Cause of the preternatural and false perception of objects, which either do not exist, or which do not, in this instance, excite such sensation, must be some disorder of that substance which is medullary, and strictly nervous.' And further, that as the natural and internal constitution of this medullary substance, which renders it fit for the proper perception of real and external impulse, or rather of the ideas thereby excited, cannot be discovered; so neither can that preternatural and internal state of the same nervous matter, which disposes it to be without any such impulse, affected by those very ideas that would have been presented to the imagination, if the same nervous matter had been acted upon by something external. Nevertheless he observes, that many remoter and external Causes of delusive sensation, frequently discover themselves to the bystander, though the idea thus excited is not by the patient himself referred to any one of those true Causes, but to something else, which may or may not exist, and which certainly does not, in this particular case, act upon the affected organ. —Hence we are taught to distinguish Madness into two species: the first of which is ascribed to an internal disorder of the nervous substance, and termed *original*; the second supposes the same nervous substance to be in like manner disordered, but disordered *ab extra*, and therefore to be called *Consequential* Madness.

Tho' there can be but one immediate, necessary, and sufficient cause of the first species of Madness, the Doctor remarks, there may be many external and accidental causes of the latter. 'Now no external cause whatever can be supposed capable of 'exciting delusive any more than true perception, except 'such

'ſuch cauſe acts materially upon the nerve thereby diſordered, and that with force ſufficient to alter the former arrangement of its medullary particles. Which force neceſſarily implies Impulſe and Preſſure in deluſive ſenſation, in the ſame manner and order as it does in the perception of objects really correſponding thereto.

'Preſſure, therefore, among all the external and diſcoverable Cauſes of falſe as well as of true perception, is [in our Author's apprehenſion] the neareſt to ſuch its apparent Effect. As to the immediate alterations of the medullary ſubſtance, that may really precede deluſive ſenſation, they are all as much unknown, as are the nervous Effects which intervene between the preſſure made by any external object, and the true and adequate idea of that very object.———

'What this particular ſort and degree of preſſure is, which is capable of creating deluſive ſenſation,' the Doctor does not pretend to aſcertain; 'becauſe the different circumſtances of the unknown ſubject acted upon, will make the nervous effects variable, and oftentimes contrary, notwithſtanding the action of the known Cauſe, conſidered *per ſe*, is, in all reſpects, the ſame.'—Nevertheleſs, he thinks it may be reaſonably concluded, in general, 'that all material objects, which by their action or reſiſtance occaſion a ſufficient, but not too great a preſſure upon the medullary ſubſtance contained in the nerves, may be the remoter Cauſes of Conſequential Madneſs.'

In ſupport of this concluſion, he inſtances 'the internal exoſtoſes of the Cranium, the indurations of the Sinuſes, and proceſſes of the Dura Mater, which have frequently been found 'in thoſe who died Mad;' alſo, 'the intropreſſion of the ſkull 'or concuſſion of the head, which, if not apoplectic, is almoſt always attended with a delirium.' The Cauſes of Madneſs from Inſolation, from a ſudden inflammation of thoſe membranes that ſurround the Cranium, and its nervous appendages, and from a gradual congeſtion of ſerum, or other fluid matter, upon the ſame membranes which envelope the medullary ſubſtance, are brought as further proofs of the rectitude of this theory.—To this he adds, that 'altho' the brain is undoubtedly the principal ſeat of deluſive ſenſation, nevertheleſs it is not 'the only one; foraſmuch as the ſame ſanguinary or ſerous obſtructions are capable in any other nervous part of the body, 'of exciting falſe ideas, as well as in the brain, at leaſt to ſome 'degree, and in proportion to the quantity of medullary matter there collected, ſo as to be ſufficiently compreſſed by 'ſuch obſtructions. Thus the ſtomach, inteſtines, and uterus, 'are frequently the real ſeats of Madneſs, occaſioned by the

'conteſts

'contents of theſe viſcera being ſtopt in ſuch a manner as to 'compreſs the many nervous filaments, which here communi-'cate with one another by the meſenteric ganglia, and which 'enrich the contents of the abdomen with a more exquiſite ſen-'ſation. Thus the Glutton, who goes to bed upon a full ſto-'mach, is hag-ridden in his ſleep. Thus

Men prove with child, as powerful fancy works:

'and patients truly hypocondriacal, or hyſterical, refer that 'load of uneaſineſs they feel in their bellies, to ſome imaginary 'object, which, if it really exiſted, and acted upon their ſenſes, 'would excite the very ſame idea.'

Our learned Author next thinks it neceſſary to examine more particularly into the nature of thoſe vaſcular diſtentions, or, to ſpeak in the language of ſurgery, thoſe tumors by *fluxion* or *congeſtion*, which end in conſequential Madneſs.

'Tumors by fluxion ending in Madneſs, are either veſſels diſ-tended by the rarefaction of their proper and natural contents, as in the caſe of Inſolation; or, which is the moſt frequent accident, they are the ſame veſſels obſtructed by the ſudden intruſion of improper fluids into ſmaller canals which were never deſigned to give either a paſſage or admittance to ſuch contents, as in the caſe of inflammation. Now this change of place and forcible propulſion of fluids from their natural ducts, into improper re-ceptacles, muſt apparently be owing to ſome power external to the fluids ſo propelled; which power either was not excited, or did not effectually act the moment before ſuch delirious obſtruc-tions took place. But the ſpaſmodic conſtriction of thoſe muſ-cular fibres, which ſurround the extremities of arteries and veins, and are at reſt till ruffled by ſome accident, is a power occaſionally excited, and when acting with ſufficient force, is capable of driving the blood out of its natural channels, into veſ-ſels not originally fitted for its reception. And it is moreover a repeated obſervation, that Madneſs frequently ſucceeds or ac-companies fever, epilepſy, child-birth, and the like muſcular diſorders; and that the tumultuous and viſibly ſpaſmodic paſſi-ons of joy and anger, are all, at leaſt for a time, maniacal. But theſe paſſions conſtringe the muſcles of the head and neck, and therefore, like a ligature, force the blood that was deſcend-ing in the jugular veins, back upon the minuteſt veſſels of the brain.

'Spaſm, therefore, when it is productive of tumors by fluxi-on, or of ſudden diſtenſions in the veſſels contiguous to the nervous ſubſtance, as alſo ſpaſmodic paſſions, ſuch as joy and anger, are to be reckoned among the remoter cauſes of Madneſs.

Not

Not but that the ſame muſcular conſtriction is often excited by the application of ſeveral external objects; which objects are therefore to be added to the ſame claſs. For beſides the many well atteſted caſes of poiſons or medicines which, as ſoon as ſwallowed, convulſe the body, and intoxicate the underſtanding, ſuch as hemlock, and the root lately miſtaken for gentian; ſuch as opium, when adminiſtered to ſome particular patients, &c. the many bottle-companions, whoſe pulſes beat high and quick, whoſe faces are flushed with blood, in the ſame manner as if they were ſtrangled, who are firſt wild, and then ſtupid, who drink till they ſee double, and then drink on till they cannot ſee at all, as well as the crowds of wretches that infeſt our ſtreets and fill our hoſpitals, evidently prove to the vulgar, as well as to the Phyſician, that vinous ſpirits inſtantaneouſly provoke an irregular action of the muſcles, ſucceeded by a temporary delirium; and that if the ſame noxious draughts are taken in too large doſes, or frequently repeated, they become a very common, tho' remoter, cauſe of Madneſs.——

'Tumors by congeſtion ending in Madneſs—are frequently, tho' not always, an effect of a very different ſort of muſcular conſtriction, eaſily diſtinguiſhable from the former, by its manner of invaſion and continuance. For this ſpaſmodic action of the muſcular fibres is very gentle at firſt, and ſo far from alarming either the patient or his friends, that for ſome time it is very little attended to, or even diſcernable. But what it wants in violence, is more than made up by its obſtinate duration and increaſe: inaſmuch as it ſeldom remits, and is with great difficulty relieved by art.—To ſuch conſtant muſcular conſtriction, and to the gradual or chronical congeſtions in the brain or meſenteric viſcera thereby occaſioned, the deſpairing Bigot,—the moping Lover, the motionleſs Widow, or Mother bereft of her children, may, at firſt view, be aſcribed.—

'The ſame tumors by congeſtion, capable with intervening preſſure, of creating conſequential Madneſs, are, indeed, often times an effect of laxity in the overloaded veſſels themſelves. —To ſuch vaſcular laxity, ariſing from muſcular ſpaſm, may be referred the many inſtances of Madneſs occaſioned by premature, exceſſive, or unnatural venery; by gonorrhæas ill cured with loads of mercury and irritating ſalts; by fevers, and other ſuch like convulſive tumults: and from hence we may account for the chimerical dreams of infirm and ſhattered Philoſophers, who, after having ſpent many days and nights without cloſing their eyes—have at laſt fallen half aſleep; and who, by exceſſive attention of body, have ſtrained every animal fibre, and may, without a metaphor, be ſaid, to have cracked their brains.

'But altho' laxity ariſing from ſpaſm, is moſt commonly the cauſe of gradual obſtructions, ending in deluſive ſenſation, nevertheleſs the ſame delirious tumours by congeſtion, more eſpecially thoſe that act upon the nervous matter contained in the abdomen, are formed ſometimes without laxity, or any ſpaſmodic diſorder whatever, either by exceſs of eating, or by defect of voluntary motion: which motion is juſt as neceſſary to a due propulſion of the fluids through the uterine and hæmorrhoidal veſſels, and through the many and intricate ramifications of the *Vena portæ*, as is the action of the heart, or the reſilition of the veſſels themſelves. Gluttony, therefore, and idleneſs, are both to be added to the remoter Cauſes of Conſequential Madneſs. To the firſt is owing the meagrim of the Epicure. To the ſecond, perhaps more than to a ſpirit of lying, may be aſcribed the temptations of St. Anthony, and the lazy Monks his followers, the extaſies of ſedentary and chlorotic Nuns, and their frequent converſations with angelic Miniſters of grace. Not to mention what now and then happens to the ſenior Recluſes in our Proteſtant monaſteries at Oxford and Cambridge.'

Sect. 9 is employed in deſcribing the diagnoſtic ſigns of both ſpecies of Madneſs, and the prognoſtics thence deducible.—*Original* Madneſs, according to Dr. Battie, may be known, or reaſonably ſuſpected, 1ſt, When it neither follows nor accompanies any accident which may juſtly be deemed its external or remoter Cauſe. 2dly, When there is room to believe it hereditary. 3dly, When it both ceaſes and appears afreſh, without any aſſignable Cauſe. Under all which circumſtances our Author concludes it to be irremediable by Medicine; nevertheleſs that its ill conditioned ſtate is, now and then, ſomewhat recompenſed by a perfect, tho' not to be accounted for, recovery, or by long intervals of ſanity.—*Conſequential* Madneſs ſometimes admits of relief; yet in proportion to the force and continuance of its Cauſes, and according to the circumſtances of the preceding diſorders, it is often complicated with other ill effects, whereby, tho' it may not be immediately prejudicial to bodily health, yet by its companions it may become fatal or greatly detrimental to animal life.

Madneſs, tho' it may be conſequential at firſt, frequently becomes habitual, and, in effect, the very ſame as Madneſs ſtrictly original.—When it proceeds from internal exoſtoſes of the cranium, or induration of the *dura mater*, it is incurable by art. Fracture, or intropreſſion of the cranium, and concuſſion of the head, have ſometimes been relieved.—When Inſolation is the cauſe, a free and early uſe of the lancet has been found uſeful. But if Madneſs is the more immediate conſequence of the ſun's action upon the nervous ſubſtance, and if, however occaſioned,

occasioned, it, from want of care, or from obstinacy of the case, continues after the piercing darts of heat are quite abated, it is generally of long duration, and very often incurable.—From inflammation of those membranes that surround the brain, Madness is very dangerous; and frequently terminates in either apoplexy or mortification. When it is the consequence of a chronical congestion of fluids, it frequently admits of relief, if timely applied: and such congestion is less dangerous, and more easily removed, whenever the mesenteric nerves alone are affected.—When produced by spasm, consequential of the tumultuous passions of joy and anger, or by intoxicating drugs, and vinous spirits, it is generally very violent, and often fatal by its immediate effects. But in case the patient is able to bear the first shock, and has not been too frequently subjected to attacks of the same sort; such sudden and irregular action of the muscles, and all its phrenetic or maniacal symptoms, are much sooner abated or relieved than the gradual and continual muscular constriction, which is occasioned by the more gentle passions of love, grief, or despair; or by long and uninterrupted attention to any one object, however pleasing.—Laxity intervening between spasm and delirious pressure, whereby it becomes a remoter cause of Madness, admits of cure, if duly applied; nor is it uncommon that the weakened membranes spontaneously recover their elastic tone, provided the spasmodic impulse is abated before their constituent fibres are distracted beyond their natural tendency to approximation.—Madness consequential of gluttony or idleness, easily submits to medicine, if properly applied.—If accompanied with other disorders, the prognostic is to be formed from those disorders.—Anxiety, like original Madness, when it proceeds from a natural defect in the internal constitution of the nervous substance, is not radically curable. If from any external cause, there is a prospect of better success.—Insensibility, or Ideotism, arising from any constitutional imperfection, is pronounced incurable by physic; nor when it appears to be only the effect of Consequential Madness, has it been frequently known to be relieved by art or nature.

Sect. 10, directs the regimen and cure of Madness. Our Author here justly remarks, that in no distemper is an exact regimen of more importance than in this; and his instructions on this head are too humane, as well as too rational, to be passed over slightly.

'Madness,' as he observes, 'considered as deluſive sensation, unconnected with any other symptom, requires the patient's being removed from all objects that act forcibly upon the nerves, and excite too lively a perception of things, more espe-

cially from ſuch objects as are the known cauſes of his diſorder; for the ſame reaſon as reſt is recommended to bodies fatigued, and the not attempting to walk when the ankles are ſtrained.

'The viſits therefore of affecting friends, as well as enemies, and the impertinent curioſity of thoſe who think it paſtime to converſe with madmen, and to play upon their paſſions, ought ſtrictly to be forbidden.—On the ſame account, the place of confinement ſhould be at ſome diſtance from home; and let him be where he will, none of his own ſervants ſhould be ſuffered to wait on him.—Every unruly appetite ſhould be checked, every fixed imagination, if poſſible, be diverted. The patient's body, and place of reſidence, is to be carefully kept clean: the air he breathes ſhould be dry, and free from noiſome ſteams; his food eaſy of digeſtion, and ſimple, neither ſpirituous, nor high ſeaſoned, and full of poignancy: his amuſements not too engaging, nor too long continued, but rendered more agreeable by a well-timed variety. Laſtly, his employment ſhould be about ſuch things as are rather indifferent, and which approach the neareſt to an intermediate ſtate (if ſuch there be) between pleaſure and anxiety.'

The Doctor now proceeds to the cure; which conſiſts, 1. in removing or correcting its cauſes: 2. in removing or correcting its ſymptoms: 3. in preventing, removing, or correcting its ill effects. With reſpect to original Madneſs, he again declares it incurable, by any remedy ſuggeſted by reaſon or experience. But ſeeing the previous diſorders and external cauſes of conſequential Madneſs, are frequently within our reach, this, as well as any other morbid effect, may, in reaſon, be cured, and, in fact, often is prevented or abated; provided the known cauſe is taken care of in time, that is, before its continued action hath altered the nervous ſubſtance to ſuch a degree as to have rendered it eſſentially or habitually unſound.

Delirious preſſure of the brain or medullary ſubſtance contained in the nerves, having been laid down as the neareſt of all the known cauſes of Madneſs, our attention is firſt directed to leſſen, divert, or diſlodge, the compreſſing matter from the part affected; the intentions for which purpoſes are, 1. depletion; 2. revulſion; 3. removal; 4. expulſion.—'Not that all theſe 'intentions are to be anſwered in all caſes and circumſtances of 'delirious preſſure. For when internal exoſtoſes, induration of 'the *dura Mater*, fracture, intropreſſion, and concuſion of the 'head, occaſion ſuch preſſure, removal (which, indeed, intropreſ-'ſion does now and then admit) is apparently impracticable. Nor 'can expulſion in any one of theſe caſes, or, indeed, in any op-

'preſſion.

'preſſion of the brain that is ſimilar to tumor by fluxion, be attempted without imminent danger to the patient's life.'——

When preſſure of the brain and nerves is ſudden, the two firſt intentions may be ſafely and effectually anſwered by the lancet and cupping-glaſs, repeated in proportion to the ſtrength of the patient, and the greatneſs of the preſſure. To the ſame purpoſe are recommended the neutral ſalts, ſuch as nitre, *ſal catharticus amarus*, *magneſia alba*, *tartar*, and all its preparations, but more eſpecially the *ſal diureticus*. To promote revulſion, in particular, we are adviſed to the uſe of the oily and penetrating ſteams ariſing from the ſkins, and other ſoft parts of animals newly ſlain; tepid fomentations and cataplaſms applied to the head, legs, and feet; and oily and emollient glyſters.—Sinapiſms, cauſtics, errhines, and veſicatories, as alſo the rougher cathartics, emetics, and volatile diaphoretics, however analogous they may ſeem to the general purpoſes of depletion and revulſion, are reaſonably ſuppoſed liable to endanger further conſtriction, and therefore not to be at all meddled with, or, at leaſt, employed with the utmoſt caution. Nay, in the caſe of phrenſies, or ſudden inflammations, our Author is ſuſpicious, and not unjuſtly, of the cathartic ſalts, and even of nitre, if adminiſtered in too large doſes.

Delirious preſſure, when gradual and chronical, in robuſt and plethoric habits, alſo indicates depletion and revulſion. But if the ſubject is naturally infirm, or exhauſted by preceding illneſs, the lancet muſt be cautiouſly uſed, or entirely prohibited: theſe intenſions being ſafely anſwered only by the mildeſt ſolutives, as the neutral ſalts, caſſia, manna, &c. and the gums quickened with a few grains of aloes. Nevertheleſs, when the weakneſs of the patient does not contraindicate, if the ſtagnating matter refuſes to ſubmit to theſe gentle evacuants, tho' often and properly repeated, and more eſpecially when the nervous ſubſtance contained in the abdomen is affected, the third and fourth intenſions, take place: 'and it becomes abſolutely ne-'ceſſary to ſhake with violence the head and hypocondria, by 'convulſing the muſcular fibres with emetics, rougher purges, 'and errhines.'

Having thus conſidered the general Cure of Delirious Preſſure, our Author turns his thoughts, in ſect. 11, to thoſe other accidents which, by occaſioning intermediate preſſure, are the remoter cauſes of conſequential Madneſs; all which are before enumerated. Theſe are ſeverally and methodically treated, and their reſpective curative indications pointed out with perſpicuity, and apparent judgment. Some of the Doctor's obſervations will, perhaps, ſeem to have an air of novelty, but ſtill they

are ſtrictly pertinent, and may be extended to further uſes than merely the cure of Madneſs. However, having already allowed an unuſual ſpace to this article, we muſt refer the inquiſitive Reader to the work itſelf for particulars, and proceed to ſect. 12, and laſt; which is appropriated to the relief of Anxiety and Inſenſibility, conſidered as ſymptoms and conſequences of Madneſs. To this are added, ſome remarks naturally deducible from the premiſes, with an abſtract of which we ſhall conclude.

We hereby learn, as Men, that madneſs is equally manageable with other diſtempers, and that ſuch unhappy objects ought by no means to be abandoned, much leſs ſhut up in loathſome priſons, as criminals, or nuſances to ſociety.—As Phyſicians, we are taught, that madneſs, like moſt other morbid caſes, rejects all general methods.

Thus bleeding, tho' apparently ſerviceable and neceſſary, in inflammations of the brain, in rarefaction of the fluids, or in plethoric habits, is no more the conſtant cure of Madneſs, than it is of a fever: nay, that, to a feeble or convulſed Lunatic, the lancet is not leſs deſtructive than a ſword. Bliſters, cauſtics, and ſharp purges, in ſhort all painful applications, or pungent ſubſtances, are to be tried with great caution, or rather not to be tried at all in fits of fury. Nor does even defect of ſenſation allow their uſe, whenever ſuch defect is occaſioned by the preceding exceſs of the nervous energy, or when it is accompanied by ſpaſm. For the ſame reaſon the gums, and all the fetid antihyſterics, tho' uſeful in Madneſs ariſing from, or complicated with, ſome ſort of ſpaſmodic diſorders, are condemned in all preternatural actions of the muſcles; alſo in Madneſs attended with feveriſh heat, or which happens in a plethoric habit of body, or that follows an inflammatory obſtruction of the brain. Opium, though our Author ſeems to approve its uſe to allay the more tumultuous paſſions, and to obtund an exceſs of ſenſibility, he determines to be no more a ſpecific in Madneſs than in the ſmall-pox: and further, that it muſt be highly dangerous in that ſpecies of the diſeaſe which approaches to ſtupor and inſenſibility. Mineral waters, drank at the fountain head, and bathing in the ſea, or cold freſh water, tho' remedies that have been much depended on for the cure of Madneſs, are declared to be contraindicated, whenever there is ſufficient reaſon to ſuſpect, that irreſoluble congeſtions of the fluids, clog the membranes contiguous to the nervous ſubſtance; or that the ſolids are ſtrained beyond the poſſibility of recovering their natural elaſticity. Laſtly, with reſpect to vomits, however heretical his opinion may be thought, the Doctor ventures to pronounce them not only improper but miſchievous, whenever there is a

reaſonable

reaſonable ſuſpicion that the veſſels of the brain or nervous integuments are ſo much clogged or ſtrained as to endanger a rupture, or further diſunion, inſtead of a deliverance from their oppreſſive loads. He alſo urges the ſame objection againſt ſuch muſcular irritation, whenever the veſſels are contracted with cold, or when their contents are rarefied with heat, and likewiſe in conſtitutions that are lax and feeble, and naturally ſpaſmodic.

To theſe obſervations are ſubjoined the following uſeful premonitions relative to the proper adminiſtration of vomits and the rougher purges, when requiſite. 1. 'If the ſeaſon of the 'year is in the choice of the Phyſician, to prefer ſpring or au-'tumn, as being in neither extreme of heat or cold. 2. Not 'to perſiſt in their uſe, at any one time, for a longer term than 'ſix or eight weeks. 3. Even during that term to give a reſpite 'every other, or at leaſt every third week, from all drugs, ex-'cept the gums, neutral ſalts, or gentle ſolutives. 4. As ſoon 'as the patient viſibly approaches to a ſtate of ſanity, entirely to 'diſcontinue theſe and all other violent methods: that the ani-'mal fibres that have been ſtrained, either by the cauſes of 'Madneſs, or, perhaps, by the means of removing them, may 'be at liberty to recover their natural firmneſs, and juſt approx-'imation of particles, which a repeated concuſſion will certain-'ly prevent.'

An Enquiry when the Reſurrection of the Body, or Fleſh, was firſt inſerted into the Public Creeds. By the late Arthur Aſhley Sykes, *D. D. Publiſhed from the Author's manuſcript, by his Brother, G. Sykes, A. M.* 8vo. 1s. Millar.

BESIDES the bare ſettling the point mentioned in the title, it is the deſign of this treatiſe, we are told in the preface, 'to ſhew how the goſpel has been changed, and made liable to 'objections which, in itſelf, it is not liable to:' as a plain inſtance of this, the Doctor conſiders the preſent queſtion, and how a variation from the words of Scripture is, and has been, the means of introducing a different doctrine from what is contained in them.

Having premiſed this neceſſary obſervation, that there is not any ſuch expreſſion in the New Teſtament as *the reſurrection of the Fleſh*, or *the Body*, and explained ſuch paſſages of Scripture as may ſeem to ſpeak of it, he proceeds to trace the hiſtory of this diſpute. He ſhews, that there is not any *public* creed before that of Conſtantinople, and this ſo late as *A. D.* 381, that contains an article of even the *reſurrection of the dead*; nor

any *private* creed, except one of Arius, and another of Epiphanius (the former about *A. D.* 327, the other *A. D.* 374) that contains even such an article; that the next time we have any hint of this, viz. the resurrection of the *flesh*, as an article proper for a creed, is *A. D.* 341, in the council of Antioch: and this mentioned in a very extraordinary manner, viz.—*if any thing ought to be added, we believe the* resurrection *of the* flesh,

Thus it appears, that among the numerous creeds that have been formed, there is not one, in any part of the world, earlier than the *fourth century*, in which the *resurrection* of the *flesh* is mentioned at all; though before that time, it is allowed to have been the subject of controversy.

We shall conclude with presenting our Readers with the useful inference this truly learned Divine has drawn from his researches on this subject.

'From the account before given of the rise and growth of this 'notion of the *resurrection of the flesh*, it seems to follow clearly, 'that in all points which depend upon revelation, men should 'confine themselves rigidly to the Scripture language, and not 'to be wise above what is written. When men recede from 'that, and add *human* doctrines to *divine* ones, they always in'volve themselves in difficulties unsurmountable. If the curio'sity of idle or vain people had not led them to a particular 'explication of the general article of the resurrection of the '*dead*, how many disputes had been avoided? If one looks into 'the history of this doctrine, one cannot but see, that though 'our baptismal creed is now determinate for a belief of the '*resurrection* of the *body*, or *flesh*, yet three hundred and fifty 'years passed before there was any such notion required to be 'professed in the Christian church: and so long as all are taught 'to believe, that *all are to be judged, quick and dead*; that *all are* 'to *stand at the judgment seat of Christ*; and that he will *come* 'again, and *render unto every one according to his works*, is it not 'raising an idle question to ask, *With what* bodies *shall we come?* 'And if any one answers such a question, by saying—*in* This 'flesh—does he not assert *more* than revelation has taught him, 'though it is what nothing but revelation can assure him of? 'And should the consequence be, what actually has been, that 'unbelievers raise an objection from hence against Christianity 'itself, *believers* are answerable for it, *as teaching for doctrines* 'the *commandments of men.*

'The growth of infidelity has long been the subject of great 'complaint, amongst serious well-meaning people: may it not 'be worth considering, whether the true cause of infidelity does 'not lie amongst those who profess a faith, which they call

'Christian,

'Chriſtian, and which is found inconſiſtent with reaſon, and 'even common ſenſe? Every one that examines at all, will 'ſee additions made to the great articles of Chriſtianity. How 'many *additions* were made to what the goſpel of Chriſt has ſaid 'concerning the Son and the Holy Ghoſt, in the ſeveral creeds 'framed in the fourth century? This poſſibly was then done 'with a good deſign to fence in, and to ſecure a right faith: 'but whatever was the deſign, it has been attended with conſe-'quences fatal to Chriſtianity itſelf. The fences have been con-'ſidered as the *thing fenced in*; and when men have ſeen things 'that they cannot comprehend or underſtand, taught as funda-'mentals of *Chriſtianity*, it is natural to reject what is unintel-'ligible as impoſſible to be required by God; and thus muſt *in-'fidelity* prevail. Whereas, if one takes the religion of Chriſt, 'as it lies in the word of God, it is *pure, peaceable*, no ways 'contrary to reaſon, *intelligible* by every body, ſo far as every 'body is concerned. The evidence for its truth is clear and 'plain, and eaſy. *The* poor *had the goſpel preached unto them* at 'firſt as well as the rich; and the poor are to be ſaved as well 'as the rich; and therefore the one can *underſtand* what is re-'quired of him by Chriſt as well as the other. But then if men 'will preſume to take the word of God into their hands, and 'will new mould and frame it as they think fit, and will make 'what is eaſy to be hard and unintelligible, and then will ana-'thematiſe and perſecute men for refuſing to profeſs what they 'do not underſtand, there will always be infidelity covered un-'der the maſk of Chriſtianity, and Chriſtianity, or what is call-'ed ſo, will be ſlily or openly attacked; and till it is profeſſed 'pure and uncorrupted, it muſt have its enemies; and if *offences* 'ariſe, *woe unto him by whom the offence cometh.*'

An Account of the European Settlements in America, in ſix Parts. 1. *A ſhort hiſtory of the diſcovery of that part of the world.* 2. *The manners and cuſtoms of the original inhabitants.* 3. *Of the Spaniſh ſettlements.* 4. *Of the Portugueſe.* 5. *Of the French, Dutch, and Daniſh.* 6. *Of the Engliſh. Each part contains an accurate deſcription of the ſettlements in it, their extent, climate, productions, trade, genius, and diſpoſition of their inhabitants: the intereſts of the ſeveral powers of Europe, with reſpect to thoſe ſettlements; and their political and commercial views with regard to each other.* 8vo. 2 vols. 8s. Dodſley.

WE are told by the Author, in his preface, that his principal motive to this performance, was the obſervation, that though a competent knowlege of the affairs of America,

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was a thing abſolutely neceſſary, to the having a juſt idea of the political ſyſtem of Britain, yet there ſeemed to him abundance of difficulties in the way to the attainment of this neceſſary kind of knowlege, notwithſtanding that the country has not been diſcovered more than two hundred years, and is in poſſeſſion of only four nations. He very juſtly aſcribes this to the want of ſkill in moſt of thoſe who have taken upon them to write either deſcriptions or hiſtories of the new world; which induced him to ſelect from all this lumber, ſuch parts as might compoſe a hiſtory, ſo adapted to point out the advantages that may reſult to ourſelves from a right management of our affairs in that part of the world, as to anſwer what he takes to be the principal end of ſo laborious an enquiry,—the gaining ſuch an extenſive and accurate knowlege of an important ſubject, as may be turned to the advantage of our country.

The firſt part, wherein he treats of the diſcovery of the new world, comprehends ſeventeen chapters; in which he gives us a very entertaining, inſtructive, and well connected account of the ſeveral expeditions of Columbus, and his ſucceſſors; the conqueſt of the two great empires of Mexico and Peru; the troubles that aroſe in them, from the ambition of the Spaniſh commanders; the pacifying thoſe troubles, and reducing the Spaniſh empire in America into order, by two great men, Vaca di Caſtro and Peter de la Gaſca; who, governed only by the principles of public ſpirit, were content to employ their abilities, expoſe their perſons, and undergo incredible fatigue, merely to do their duty: and after all, to return to Spain as poor as they left it, and to live there as private men, with that ſtock of reputation they had acquired by diſcharging, as became them, offices not higher in rank than free from hazards and difficulties, that would have diſcouraged men of any other principle.

The ſecond part treats of the manners of the Americans; and is divided into four chapters. In theſe we find a very natural and pleaſing picture of the perſons, cuſtoms, and way of living of the ſavage nations that inhabit this great country. We are next preſented with the ſyſtem of their politics, founded on a fond and fooliſh paſſion for uncontrolled, uſeleſs, and brutal liberty. This is ſucceeded by the deſcription of their extraordinary piety towards the dead; which ſubject is treated in a very curious though conciſe manner; and the conſequences of it in ſupporting the ſpirits and inflaming the courage of the living, are very fairly and fully ſtated. Laſtly, we have their ſavage art of war, the manner of their carrying it on, the end they propoſe, and the method of their tormenting ſome, and adopting others of their priſoners. We learn from this part, the reaſon why this vaſt and plen-

plentiful country is ſo very thinly peopled. We ſee that even barbarity cannot be preſerved or propagated, but by a barbarous education. We are taught from the contraſt between theſe and civilized nations, that principles of policy and politeneſs really contribute to perfect human nature, and that without theſe there is very little difference between the beaſt that goes upon four legs, and the brute that walks upon two.

The third part, divided into ſixteen chapters, gives us the hiſtory of the Spaniſh ſettlements in America; previous to which we have a comprehenſive view exhibited of the whole. America extends from the North pole to the fifty-ſeventh degree of South latitude. It is upwards of eight thouſand Miles in length; it ſees both hemiſpheres; it has two ſummers, and a double winter; it enjoys all the variety of climates which the earth affords; it is waſhed by the two greateſt oceans; to the eaſtward it has the Atlantic ocean, which divides it from Europe and Africa; to the Weſt it has another ocean, the great South-ſea, by which it is disjoined from Aſia; and by theſe ſeas it carries on a direct commerce with the other three parts of the world. It is compoſed of two vaſt continents, one on the North, the other on the ſouth; and theſe are joined by the great kingdom of Mexico, which forms a ſort of iſthmus fifteen hundred miles long; and which, in one part, at Darien, is ſo extremely narrow, as to make a communication between the two oceans by no means difficult. In the great gulph, which is formed between this iſthmus, and the northern and ſouthern continents, lie an infinite multitude of iſlands, many of them large, moſt of them fertile, and capable of being cultivated to a very great advantage.

All this great country may, without much impropriety, be ſaid to be in the poſſeſſion of four European nations. The Spaniards, who firſt diſcovered it, have the largeſt and richeſt ſhare. They have all that part of North America which compoſes the Iſthmus of Mexico, and what lies beyond that towards the river Miſſiſſippi, on the Eaſt, the Pacific Ocean, to the Weſt, and North-Weſt; and they poſſeſs all South America, excepting Braſil; which lies between the mouth of the River of Amazons and that of Plata, along the Atlantic Ocean: this belongs to Portugal. That part of North America which does not belong to the Spaniards, is divided between the Engliſh and the French. The Engliſh have all the countries which encircle Hudſon's-bay, and thence in a line all along the eaſtern ſhore, to the thirtieth degree of North-latitude. France claims the country which lies between this and the Spaniſh ſettlements to the Weſt, and ſecures an intercourſe with them by the mouths of the Miſſiſſippi, the Mobile, and of the River St. Laurence, which are the only avenues of navigation to this very extenſive country. The multitude of iſlands which lie

lie between the two continents, are divided amongſt the Spaniards, French, and Engliſh. The Dutch poſſeſs three or four ſmall iſlands, which in any other hands would be of no conſequence. The Danes have one or two: but they hardly deſerve to be named amongſt the proprietors of America.

The ſecond chapter opens with the deſcription of Mexico, and contains a very ſuccinct, tho' not a ſuperficial, account of all that fine country; the ſcheme of Spaniſh policy in the management of it; the principal commodities, ſuch as gold, ſilver, cochineal, and cacao; with a detail of the method of digging and refining the metals, preparing the other two valuable commodities; and the value of the quantities exported. We have alſo a repreſentation of the cities of Mexico, La Vera Cruz, and Acapulco; with a clear proſpect of the commerce carried on in the two laſt. The deſcription of the people who inhabit this country concludes the ſubject, which is diſcuſſed in ſix chapters. The ſeventh, which is very ſhort, regards the kingdom of New Mexico.

In the eighth chapter, we meet with a deſcription of Peru, and its valuable products; which, excluſive of ſilver and gold, are wine, oil, brandy, Vigonia wool, Jeſuits-bark, and Guinea or Jamaica pepper. The three laſt are treated very particularly, and very ſenſibly. The cities of Lima, Cuſco, and Quito, are next deſcribed, with the famous port of Callao, and the earthquake that buried it in ruins. The twelfth and thirteenth chapters are employed upon Chili. The two next chapters relate to Paraguay, the famous ſettlement of Buenos Ayres, and the no leſs celebrated empire which the Jeſuits are ſaid to have erected in the country behind it. This account, tho' conciſe, is curious: and the Author has therein proved, that his candour is not at all inferior to his penetration and judgment. He has rightly diſtinguiſhed between the conduct of the Jeſuits in America and Europe; and has done juſtice to their talents, in civilizing the Indians, and governing them without oppreſſion. The laſt chapter of this part treats of the Terra Firma, and of the cities of Panama, and Carthagena; the courſe of the galleons, the nature of the Spaniſh trade, and the effects it has had upon their politics, as well as their politics upon their trade.

The fourth part regards the Portugueſe ſettlements, in that part of South America which is called Brazil. We there find, a ſhort account of the diſcovery; the great importance of the country; and the manner in which, about one half of it was preſerved by that warlike Prelate Don Miguel de Teixeira, when the other half was conquered by the Dutch. This was

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not atchieved by the Republic, but by their West-India Company; who enjoyed this valuable conqueſt, and loſt it by endeavouring to increaſe its value. They rendered the government ſo uneaſy to the great Count Maurice of Naſſau, that he found himſelf obliged to reſign it; and then, by ſlighting their fortifications, reducing their military force, and purſuing their mercantile principle, of making the moſt of every thing, they loſt all. The hiſtory of the Portugueſe in this part of the world, after they had thus recovered Brazil, is delivered with ſenſe and ſpirit; and we find abundance of judicious obſervations on their policy, manners, trade, and other ſubjects; with a detail of the produce of this country, the value of it, and the manner in which the commerce is carried on between this colony and Portugal: which is compriſed in five chapters, and brings us to the concluſion of the firſt volume.

The fifth part relates to the French ſettlements. In the two firſt chapters we have the manner of their coming into the Weſt-Indies; and of their acquiring and ſettling that part of the iſland of Hiſpaniola of which they are in poſſeſſion: and which we might have had, if we would have accepted it, as they did, from a herd of pirates and banditti, who had fixed themſelves there, in ſpite of the Spaniards, who were its original proprietors. Our Author computes, and ſurely his computation is extremely modeſt, that it produces, yearly, to the crown of France, ſeven hundred and fifty thouſand pounds ſterling. The largeſt town in the French part of Hiſpaniola, is Cape Françoiſe, which is ſituated on the north part of the iſland, upon a very fine harbour. It is well built, and contains about eight thouſand families, Blacks and Whites. But though this be the largeſt town, Leogane, on the weſtern ſide, a good port too, and a place of conſiderable trade, is the ſeat of government; which here lies in the hands of a Governor and the Intendant, who are reciprocally a check upon each other. There are beſides two other towns, conſiderable for their trade, Petit Guaves, on the weſt end of the iſland, and Port Louis on the ſouth-weſt part.

The iſland of Martinico is next deſcribed; and the export of its ſugars computed at ſeventy thouſand hogſheads. Guardaloupe is the largeſt of all the Caribbees, and exports as much as the former. The export of the reſt is computed at eight thouſand hogſheads. Beſides theſe iſlands, the French poſſeſs that of Cayenne, on the coaſt of the Spaniſh Terra Firma. The reflections at the cloſe of this chapter, on the conſequences that may attend their retaining the iſlands of St. Vincent, St. Lucia, and Tobago; or the claims to thoſe iſlands being

being long unadjuſted, are equally important and judicious; for which reaſon we hope they will excite attention.

The fourth chapter contains the hiſtory of Canada, a view of the country, a detail of the French commerce with the Indians; the ſituations of the lakes, the courſe of the river St. Lawrence; with all the advantages and diſadvantages of that country, and its inhabitants, (which are computed at a hundred thouſand) placed in a very proper light. After this, we have a deſcription of the iſland of Cape Breton; a brief account of its importance; and the principal places in both colonies; with the nature of the communication and commerce between them. The next chapter regards Louiſiana, and the countries on the river Miſſiſippi; in all which the French are computed to have about ten thouſand inhabitants, white and black. Our Author is very careful to inform us, to how great a degree theſe vaſt regions may be improved; by what methods a communication between Louiſiana and Canada may be effected; the conſequences that would attend it; and the danger of ſeeing the French gradually poſſeſs themſelves of their claims in this part of the world, which extend to a country little inferior in compaſs to Europe. The ſixth chapter is the moſt intereſting, and the moſt inſtructive in the whole work. It contains a ſtriking picture of the French policy in their plantations, which every Britiſh Reader muſt view with concern and regret; but which, at the ſame time, will free him from all admiration at the ſucceſs of their ſettlements in the Weſt-Indies, or their making war with ſo much advantage on the continent of America.

The ſeventh chapter relates to the Dutch ſettlements; which are only Surinam, and its dependencies, on the main land of South-America; and the iſlands of Curaſoe, St. Euſtatia, Aruba, and Bonaire. The former produces a conſiderable quantity of ſugar, a great deal of cotton, and excellent coffee. The iſlands are ſuch as no other nation would keep, and yet they are of prodigious benefit to their preſent poſſeſſors; not ſo much from their produce, of ſugar, tobacco, and ſalt, as from the extenſive commerce which they carry on with all parts of the Weſt-Indies, and their immenſe contraband trade with the Spaniards; which, altogether, in a time of peace may amount, yearly, to ſix hundred thouſand pounds ſterling, and in time of war, to much more. Originally it was entirely carried on by the Weſt-India Company. At preſent, ſhips that go thither pay two and a half per Cent. for their licences, and the Company reſerves to itſelf the intercourſe between Africa and America, the ſmall remains of their once great and glorious poſſeſſions.

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The Danes have only the islands of St. Thomas and Santa Cruz, amongst the Caribbees; which, while they were in the hands of a West-India Company, were very inconsiderable. But the present King of Denmark, who is truly the Father of his subjects, having laid the trade open, it is become of more consequence; though in the nature of things, and in comparison of the rest, it never can be of much; which is the reason that our Author confines the possession of America, to four nations only.

The sixth part of this work treats of the English settlements in America; and the four first chapters relate to the island of Jamaica: in which are comprehended the history of its conquest; the description of the island; an account of its produce, consisting of pimento, sugar, rum, molasses, cotton, and ginger; and a detail of the logwood, contraband, and slave trade; with a view of the dispute relating to the change of the seat of government, from St. Jago to Port-Royal. The fifth chapter, respects Barbadoes; the wild condition of that island at its first settlement; the rapid progress made in its improvement; the great wealth, and surprizing number, of the inhabitants; and the present state of the island in all respects. In the next chapter, we have a view of the islands of St. Christopher, Antigua, Nevis, and Montserrat; their inhabitants, commerce, and importance. The six remaining chapters, describe the climate, the rains, winds, and hurricanes, in the West-Indies; the cultivation of the sugar cane, and the manufacture of sugar; observations on the taxes laid on their manufactures, and their consequences; on the state of the negroes in the West-Indies, and the danger arising from the vast disproportion between them and the Whites; methods for remedying these evils, lessening the misery of the Negroes, rendering the colonies more secure, relieving their grievances, and augmenting reciprocally the advantages they derive from, and the benefits accruing from them to, their mother country.

The seventh part, (for there are seven, tho' the title expresses but six) regards the English colonies on the continent, and the first seven chapters contain an account of the manner of our settling there, with a particular history of the Charter colonies in New-England; a description of that country, the number and condition of its inhabitants, their strength and advantages, the nature of their commerce, and a variety of incidental and useful observations. The three next chapters bring us acquainted with the present state of New-York, New-Jersey, and their dependencies, with the nature of their produce and trade; their traffic with the Indians, and the history of the Iroquois, or Six Nations. In the three next chapters we have an account of

William

William Penn; the principles upon which he ſettled his colony, the quick progreſs made by the inhabitants of Pennſylvania, the deſcription of that country, the nature of its produce and trade, the pacific diſpoſition of the Quakers, the variety of nations and religions there; with reflections upon the preſent ſtate of affairs in that colony. The deſcription and hiſtory of Virginia; the nature and cultivation of tobacco; the trade in that and other commodities; the proportion between the White and Black People there, and the preſent ſtate of things in this country, are the ſubjects of the four next chapters: as Maryland is of the eighteenth. The ſix ſucceeding chapters regard North and South Carolina; and the two following relate to the Settlement of Georgia; the defects in the firſt plan, the errors committed in new modelling it, and its preſent ſtate in reſpect to people, produce, and commerce. Inſtead of entering minutely into theſe, which would oblige us almoſt to tranſcribe the book, we will give the twenty-ſeventh chapter, as a proper ſpecimen of the whole, and in ſupport of the character we have beſtowed upon it.

'The laſt province we have ſettled, or rather began to ſettle, 'upon the continent of North-America, is Nova-Scotia. This 'vaſt province, called by the French Acadie, has New-Eng- 'land and the Atlantic ocean to the ſouth and ſouth-weſt, and 'the river and gulph of St. Lawrence to the north and north- 'eaſt. It lies between the forty-fourth and fiftieth degrees of 'north latitude; and tho', in a very favourable part of the tem- 'perate zone, has a winter of an almoſt inſupportable length 'and coldneſs, continuing at leaſt ſeven months in the year; 'to this immediately ſucceeds, without the intervention of any 'thing that may be called ſpring, a ſummer of an heat as vio- 'lent as the cold, though of no long continuance; and they 'are wrapt in the gloom of a perpetual fog, even long after 'the ſummer ſeaſon has commenced. In moſt parts the ſoil is 'thin and barren; the corn it produces of a ſhrivelled kind, 'like rye; and the graſs intermixed with a cold ſpongy moſs. 'However, it is not uniformly bad; there are tracts in Nova 'Scotia which do not yield to the beſt land in New-England.

'Unpromiſing as this country is, yet neglecting all thoſe de- 'lightful tracts to the ſouthward, it was here that ſome of the 'firſt European ſettlements were made. The French ſeated 'themſelves here, before they made any eſtabliſhment in Ca- 'nada; but whatever unaccountable ignorance influenced their 'choice, the induſtry and vigour of that time deſerves our ap- 'plauſe; for they had infinitely more difficulties to ſtruggle 'with than we have at this day, and not the hundredth part of 'the ſuccours from Europe: yet they ſubſiſted in a tolerable

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'manner, and increaſed largely; while the colony, which in 'our days we have fixed there, if the ſupport of the royal hand 'was withdrawn, but for a moment, after all the immenſe ſums 'which have been expended in its eſtabliſhment, would un-'doubtedly ſink into nothing. It is with difficulty it ſubſiſts, 'even encouraged and ſupported as it is. Yet the deſign of 'eſtabliſhing a colony here, with whatever difficulties it might 'been attended, was a very prudent meaſure; for the French 'would undoubtedly have profitted of our neglects, and 'have by ſome means have got this country into their hands, to 'the great annoyance of all our colonies, and to the great be-'nefit both of their fiſhery and their ſugar iſlands.

'This country has frequently changed hands, from one pri-'vate proprietor to the other, and from the French to the Eng-'liſh nation, backward and forward, until the treaty of Utrecht 'eſtabliſhed our right in it finally; as the treaty of Aix la Cha-'pelle confirmed it. But both were deficient, in not aſcertain-'ing diſtinctly, what bounds this province ought to have. This 'was left to be adjuſted by Commiſſaries. Whilſt they were 'debating, the French built forts, and ſecured ſuch a part of 'the province as they were reſolved to hold. I have not through-'out this work choſen to enter into territorial diſputes, becauſe 'they convey very little private inſtruction, and do nothing at 'all towards the eſtabliſhment of the public rights. Yet it is 'difficult to avoid remarking, that the line which the French 'have drawn in Nova Scotia, is not only not drawn by any 'treaty, but that it is very apparently calculated to ſecure them 'thoſe parts of the province which they value moſt, and at the 'ſame time to pay an apparent reſpect to the treaty of Utrecht, 'by leaving us ſome part of Acadia.

'The chief town we had formerly in this province, was 'called Annapolis Royal, but, though the capital, it was a ſmall 'place, wretchedly fortified, and yet worſe built and inhabited. 'Here were ſtationed the remains of a regiment, which conti-'nued there, very little recruited, ſince the reign of Queen 'Anne. But though this place never flouriſhed, it ſtood upon 'the very beſt harbour, as it is ſaid, in North-America; but it 'was not here, but on the ſouth-eaſt ſide of the peninſula, that 'the ſettlement which was reſolved and executed with ſo 'much ſpirit, at the end of the laſt war, was planned. This 'too ſtands upon a fine harbour, very commodiouſly ſituated, 'and rather better than Annapolis for the fiſhery. The town 'is called Halliſax, from the preſent Earl, to whoſe wiſdom 'and care we owe this ſettlement. In 1743, three thouſand fa-'milies, at an immenſe charge to the government, were tranſ-'ported into this country at once, and (I think) three regi-

'ments ſtationed there, to protect them from the Indians, who 'have always ſhewed themſelves our moſt implacable enemies. 'The town is large, and for ſo new a ſettlement, well built. 'It has a good intrenchment of timber, ſtrengthened with forts 'of the ſame materials, ſo as to be in little danger, at leaſt 'from an Indian enemy.

'Though this town of Halifax has, all things conſidered, a 'very flouriſhing appearance, the adjacent country is not im-'proved in proportion. The ground is very hard to be cleared; 'when cleared, does not produce a great deal; and labour is 'extravagantly dear. But this colony has ſuffered more from 'the incurſions of the Indians, than from any thing elſe. 'Their incurſions have been ſo frequent, and attended with 'ſuch cruelties, that the people can hardly extend themſelves 'beyond the cannon of the fort, nor attend their works of agri-'culture even there, without the greateſt danger. The conſe-'quence of this is, that they do not raiſe the fifth part of what 'is ſufficient to maintain them. Moſt of their proviſion, of 'every ſort, comes from New-England, and they muſt have 'ſtarved if it were not for the fiſhery, which, it muſt be own-'ed, is not contemptible; and for ſome little naval ſtores, and 'the pay of the garriſon, the ſpending of which here, is the 'principal uſe of the troops. Againſt the Indian enemy they 'are of very little effect; though there are three regiments, 'and all the fighting men the Indians can raiſe in that province, 'are not five hundred. The ſoldiers, inactive by their con-'finement in their barracks, diſeaſed, for the moſt part, with 'the ſcurvy, and debilitated by the uſe of ſpirituous liquors, 'are quite an undermatch for the activity, vigilance, patience, 'and addreſs of the Americans. A company of wood-rangers, 'kept conſtantly to ſcour the country near our ſettlements, and 'a ſmall body of Indians, who might be brought at an eaſy 'rate from the friendly tribes who inhabit our other ſettle-'ments, and encouraged by a reward for what ſcalps they 'ſhould bring home, ſent to infeſt the enemy amongſt their own 'habitations, would have protected our colony, and long ago 'exterminated the Indians, or reduced them to an uſeful ſub-'jection, ſince unfortunately we have not the ſecret of gaining 'their affections. The eaſy plan I have mentioned, would not 'have had half the expence attending it, that the maintenance 'of a numerous, and almoſt uſeleſs, garriſon has had. A little 'experience will ſhew, to the moſt ordinary underſtandings, 'what hardly any ſagacity could have, without it, unvieled to 'the moſt penetrating Stateſman. It was a want of this expe-'rience that cauſed another miſtake, of almoſt as bad a nature. 'Until the beginning of this war, a number of the ancient

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'French colony, ſome ſay ten or twelve thouſand ſouls, remained in the country, and were called, and treated, in a manner as a neutral people, though they ought to have been the King's ſubjects; but they yielded very little obedience to the Crown of England, as, in truth, they had from us very little protection, and they were even accuſed of encouraging the Indian incurſions, and ſupplying them with arms and ammunition, to annoy our people. Had we erected in their country a little fort, and kept in it a ſmall garriſon, to be maintained by that people themſelves; appointed Magiſtrates, and made them know the benefit and excellency of the Britiſh laws; and, at the ſame time, impreſſed them with a dread of the Britiſh power, we might have ſaved many uſeful people to this colony, and prevented the neceſſity (if it was a neceſſity) of uſing meaſures which, if they are not impolitic, are certainly ſuch as an humane and generous mind is never conſtrained to, but with regret.

'Beſides Annapolis and Halifax, we have another ſettlement a little ſouth-weſt of the latter, called Lunenburg. This is a branch of German ſrom Halifax who being diſcontented at the infertility of the ſoil there, deſired to go where there was better land to be had, undertaking their own defence. Accordingly they ſettled where they deſired, to the number of ſeven or eight hundred, and ſucceed tolerably well. Upon a tumult which aroſe amongſt them, the Governor ſent a party of ſoldiers to protect them from their own diſcords, and from the enemy. This province is yet but in its beginning, and therefore, except in proſpect, can afford us no great matter of ſpeculation.'

Newfoundland is the ſubject of the next chapter. The fiſhery on the Banks of which is valued at three hundred thouſand pounds a year. The ſame chapter comprehends the Bermudas and the Bahama iſlands. The former not only very unlike what they might be, but not a little fallen from what they once were; as to the latter, tho' ſome hundreds in number, the iſland of Providence is the only one that is inhabited. Our Author very juſtly exclaims at the neglect of theſe iſlands, the firſt diſcovered, as fruitful as any, and better ſituated, than moſt in America. It is ſtrange, that he takes no notice of their being, tho' uncultivated, and uninhabited, in the hands of Proprietors. They gave title to a bubble in 1720. They have been the ſubject of ſeveral projects ſince; and there is little or no room to doubt they might be made as fertile in ſugar as any of the Caribbee iſlands: yet in ſome of theſe, land is worth one hundred pounds an acre. We might add to what our Author ſays, upon this ſubject, that theſe neglected iſlands are ſo happy in

reſpect to ſoil and climate, that not only all the valuable products of America might be cultivated here, with facility and advantage, but thoſe alſo of Aſia and Africa; ſo that there is nothing wanting but induſtry and attention, to render the Bahamas, now remarkable only for ſhipwrecks, as rich and valuable countries as any we poſſeſs in this part of the world.

The twenty-ninth chapter treats of Hudſon's-Bay; in ſpeaking of which, the Author declares himſelf convinced, that there is a North-Weſt Paſſage, which he judiciouſly founds upon the greater ſwell of the tides within the inner part of the Bay than near the Streights, and the apparent increaſe of this ſwell upon weſterly winds; which are, in fact, ſuch concurring teſtimonies, as muſt have the ſame weight with every man who has a competent notion of the nature of tides, and the utter impoſſibility of their having conſtant appearances, from any other than conſtant and adequate cauſes. He is likewiſe for laying this trade open, and ſettling the country. This, he ſays, would be productive of many good conſequences, ſeveral of which he has enumerated; and, as far as the nature of his deſign led him, has fully explained our national intereſt in this reſpect: which, without doubt, ought to take place of any advantages that may ariſe to particular perſons.

In the laſt, which is the thirtieth chapter, he conſiders the ſeveral governments that ſubſiſt in our colonies, and diſtinguiſhes them into Royal, Proprietary, and Charter. He deſcribes each of theſe, points out their advantages and diſadvantages, with the effects they have upon thoſe who live under them. He diſcourſes next of the laws, which he thinks are too numerous in the Plantations, as well as in their mother country; too much perplexed, and by far too favourable to that litigious ſpirit, which helps thoſe men to the largeſt fortunes, who are the leaſt uſeful in ſuch countries. He concludes with an account of the Paper Currency, eſtabliſhed by ſeveral governments in our colonies, to ſupply the want of gold and ſilver. He ſhews the abuſes that have ariſen from thence; and mentions, as a remedy, the ſtriking, in ſome province of the Continent, a coin, that ſhould be current over the whole; with ſuch an allay, as might leave it ſome real value, and yet ſo proportioned, as to prevent its currency elſewhere,—and thereby fix it to themſelves.

A ſhort

A ſhort Account of PERSPECTIVE.

THE Authors (1) that have lately treated on the art of Perſpective, the controverſy they have occaſioned, which perhaps may not be yet terminated, together with the importance (2) of

(1) Brook Taylor, Hamilton, Highmore, Kirby, Bardwell, Ware, &c.

(2) All the Authors who have written with any ſucceſs on the art of Painting, particularly recommend the ſtudy of Perſpective to their pupils. Leon Battiſta Alberti, in his definition of painting, ſeems to reſolve the whole art into that of perſpective. "Picture, ſays he, is the interſection of the viſual piramid, or cone of rays." And after giving his method of finding the apparent forms and dimenſions of objects on the picture, or interſecting plane, he thus concludes his treatiſe. "He only can attain to be agreat painter, who has learned to diſpoſe properly the outlines and dimenſions of ſuperficies; ſo that I will venture to affirm, he will never be a good artiſt, who is not a perfect maſter of what is here taught: and therefore, all that we have ſaid relating to ſuperficies, and interſection, was quite neceſſary."

Leonardo da Vinci begins his treatiſe of painting in the following manner, "Whoever would apply himſelf to painting, muſt, in the firſt place, learn Perſpective. This will enable him to diſpoſe objects in their proper places, and to give to each their due dimenſions, &c."

Lomazzo, who is, indeed, rather too diffuſe and prolix throughout his whole book, employs the two or three firſt chapters of the fifth book of his treatiſe on the art of painting, to inculcate the ſame doctrine. He ſays, "Both painters and ſculptors are to follow the viſual proportion," or that given them by the rules of Perſpective; "that the eye and the intellect, regulated by the art of Perſpective, is to be the rule, the meaſure, and, in a word, the judge of painting and ſculpture:"—with a great deal more to the ſame purpoſe. Edit. Milan, page 247.

De Piles, in his art of painting, ſays, "It is true, that a painter cannot do any thing without Perſpective in all his operations; and that he does not draw a line, or ſtrike a ſtroke with his pencil, which hath not a ſhare of this in it." Engliſh Tranſlation, page 33.

The ſame Author, in the *Cours de Peinture par Principes*, ſays, "Deſign, or drawing, obliges the painter to underſtand geometry, that he may be able to practiſe exactly the rules of Perſpective: of which there is an indiſpenſible neceſſity in all his operations."

Indeed the knowlege of Perſpective has generally been inſiſted on in ſuch terms, by thoſe who have treated on painting, that one might be tempted to look upon the whole art of painting as implied in that of Perſpective. We therefore think it incumbent on us

of the ſubject to all who would become proficients in the art of deſigning,—are motives which determine us to ſet the whole of this matter in as clear a light as our abilities will permit; and though the ſubject promiſes to be ſomewhat dry and unentertaining, we are perſuaded that the number of Readers intereſted in this diſquiſition, will render any apology for ſuch an undertaking ſuperfluous: for it is undoubtedly of great conſequence to thoſe who apply themſelves to painting, that they be not miſled in the ſtudy of ſo fundamental a part of their profeſſion.

In order to convey a clearer idea of this ſubject, it will not be improper to give ſuch an account of the hiſtory and antiquity of Perſpective, as the brevity we preſcribe ourſelves will permit.

The only antient Author from whom we can obtain any information, relative to the antiquity of this art, is Vitruvius; who, in the proem to his ſeventh book, ſays as follows (3).

'Agatharcus, at Athens, when Æſchilus exhibited a play, was the firſt who made a tragic ſcene; and he left ſome notes concerning it, which afterwards prompted Democritus and Anaxagoras to write on the ſame ſubject; ſhewing in what manner it was neceſſary that the lines in their natural order ſhould correſpond to the point of view, and the extent of the rays (a certain place being conſtituted as the center;) ſo that by [*what are in appearance*] uncertain random lines, they might, in their paintings on the ſcene, exhibit ideas of the certain and determined forms of edifices; and that the objects repreſented on the front of the ſcene, which was a plane directly oppoſed to the

to adverti ſe the young painter, that however neceſſary to him this ſtudy may be, in order to arrive at a certain proficiency in his art;—yet the doctrines of proportion, of anatomy, the effects of age and paſſion on the human body, &c. are alſo abſolutely neceſſary; and ſeem not only to be more difficult of attainment, but the more ſublime parts of the ſcience. Beſides, it is obvious, that unleſs we are poſſeſſed of the real form of bodies or objects, we muſt always want the neceſſary *data* by which to find their apparent forms.

(3) ——"*Primum Agatharcus Athenis, Aeſchilo docente, tragicam ſcenam fecit, et de ea commentarium reliquit. Ex eo moniti* * *Democritus et Anoxagoras, de eadem re ſcripſerunt, quemadmodum oporteat ad aciem oculorum, radiorumque extenſionem (certo loco pro centro conſtituto) lineas ratione naturali reſpondere, uti de incerta re, certæ imagines ædificiorum in ſcenarum picturis reddèrent ſpeciem, & quæ in directis planisque frontibus ſint figuratæ, alia abſcedentia, alia prominentia eſſe videantur.*" VITRUV. in Proem, lib. ſept.

* See Diogenes Laertius; who, in the catalogue he has preſerved of the works of Democritus, mentions his Ἀκτινογραφια, and his book entitled, Περὶ Ζωγραφιης; either of which may have treated on this ſubject.

eye,

eye, ſhould ſome of them appear to recede and others to project and come forward, &c.

But unluckily the writings of Democritus and Anaxagoras, are no longer extant. We know, however, that theſe Philoſophers were ſkilled in geometry; and we cannot doubt their being equal to the ſubject of which they undertook to treat.

The Perſpective of Euclid, and of (4) Heliodorus Lariſſeus, contain only ſome general elements of optics, and are by no means adapted to any particular practice: though they ſeem to ſuggeſt what might furniſh a thinking man with materials to aſſiſt him, even in the linear Perſpective uſed by painters.

Geminus of Rhodes, who was a celebrated mathematician, in the time of Cicero, hath likewiſe written on this ſubject; which according to (5) Lomazzo he divides into three parts, viz. *Viſion*, or *Perſpective*; *Sciography*, or the doctrine of ſhadows; and *Specularia:* which laſt might probably be that of reflected objects. The firſt part he ſubdivides into phyſiological, and *grammical*, or linear, &c. ſo that if Lomazzo's account of it be juſt, it ſeems to be deſigned for the inſtruction of painters. Thus much for the perſpective of the Grecians.

That the Roman Artiſts were acquainted with the rules of Perſpective, may be inferred from what Pliny (6) relates of the repreſentations on the ſcene of thoſe plays given by Claudius Pulcher; by whoſe appearance the crows were ſo deceived that they endeavoured to ſettle on the fictitious roofs.

But although we are perſuaded, that the antient artiſts, Greek and Roman, were ſkilled in the practice of Perſpective, it remained for ſome time a myſtery with the moderns, on the revival of painting among them: as they ſeem to have been at firſt entirely ignorant of every effect this art produces.

It will not, however, be an eaſy taſk to aſſign the period in which Perſpective ceaſed to be cultivated by painters, as an eſſential part of their ſtudies: or to mark the time when they again began to apply themſelves to it.

(4) Ηλιοδωρου Λαρισσαιου Κεφαλαια των οπτικων.

(5) Not having Geminus at hand, we are obliged to cite Paolo Lomazzo on the art of painting, p. 254.

Di lei (that is, perſpective) parlando Gemino nobile ed antico ſcrittore delle coſe mathematiche, la divide in tre ſpetie, in ottica cioe proſpettiva, ſciografica e ſpeculuria. L'Ottica ſi divide in due ſpetie, in fiſiologica e grammica, &c.

(6) " *Habuit et ſcena ludis Claudii Pulchri magnam admirationem picturæ, cum ad tegularum ſimilitudinem corvi decepti imagine advolarent.* PLIN. Nat. Hiſt. lib. 35. cap. 4.

The deluge of barbariſm which overflowed the weſtern empire, and in its progreſs extinguiſhed every ſpark of ſcience and genius, ſeems totally to have deſtroyed the arts of imitation; and perſpective was doubtleſs loſt where painting and ſculpture no longer exiſted.

This Art might nevertheleſs be ſtill practiſed much later in the Eaſtern empire. John Tzetzes, who lived in the 12th century talks of it as if he was well acquainted with its importance in painting and ſtatuary; and the Greek painters, who were employed by the Venetians and Florentines, in the 13th century, ſeem to have brought ſome optical knowlege with them, into Italy; for we find the diſciples of (7) Giotto praiſed for obſerving Perſpective more regularly than any of their predeceſſors in the art had done: and they lived in the beginning of the 14th century; that is more than a century before the Eaſtern empire was totally deſtroyed.

But it ought here to be remembered, that the Arabians, among other ſciences which they cultivated, by no means neglected optics; and though the linear Perſpective of painters might not be much attended to by them, yet they carried their reſearches in optics to a great length. Alhazen (8) is, in particular, frequently cited by Roger Bacon, when treating on this ſubject.

Vitellus (9), a Polander, wrote largely and learnedly on optics. He was cotemporary with Friar Bacon; as was alſo John Peckham, Archbiſhop of Canterbury; who, as well as our celebrated Friar, treated this ſubject with ſurprizing accuracy, for the times they lived in: and of theſe Authors much the ſame judgment may be made in reſpect of their utility to painters, that we have juſt given concerning Euclid and Heliodorus.

Let us now return to the diſciples of Giotto; they having, as before obſerved, ſurpaſſed their predeceſſors, by attending more regularly to Perſpective, the art ſeems to have ſoon made a conſiderable progreſs in Italy; the Lombards, as well as the Florentines, applying themſelves to improve it.

The laborious compiler of the Abecedario Pittorico, has publiſhed, towards the end of that work, a catalogue of Authors, who have treated on Architecture and Perſpective; among whom

(7) Stefano of Florence, and Pietro Laurati of Siena. *Vit.* VASARI.

(8) Who is ſuppoſed to have lived about the year 1100.

(9) Vitellus is called, in the title to his book, *Thuringo Paltus*, and his editor, Riſner, places him in the year 1270.

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we obſerve none of a more antient (10) date than Bartolomeo Bramantino of Milan, whoſe book, entitled, *Regole di Perſpectiva, e miſure delle antichità di Lombardia*, is dated 1440. He is mentioned by Lomazzo, at the end of his fifth book, and ſome account is there given of his method.

Leon Battiſta Alberti was an excellent painter and architect, and one of the moſt cultivated geniuſes that age produced. In the account of his life, which is prefixed to his works, we learn, that his treatiſe *De Pictura*, was written in the year 1450. It is divided into three books, in which he treats principally of Perſpective.

Baldazzare Peruzzi, of Siena, born in the year 1481, was a geometrician, painter, and architect. The method of Perſpective which Serlio publiſhed in the year 1540, he received from this maſter.

Pietro Cataneo was likewiſe of Siena. He ſeems to have been a ſplenetic kind of man, and an enemy to Serlio, whom he reprehends frequently, in his book of architecture, printed in 1567: at the end of which work he gives a detail of that method of Perſpective, by the line of interſection, which ſeems to have been in uſe with Leon Battiſta Alberti, and Bramantino; and this he appears to have done in oppoſition to Serlio, whoſe method determines the ſituation of the points required, by lines drawn from the points of diſtance, interſecting others drawn from the point of ſight.

We ſhould have obſerved, that in 1558, the planiſphere of Ptolemy was publiſhed in Latin by Commandine; in his comment on which he diſcuſſes the doctrine of Perſpective: and in 1569, Daniel Barbaro publiſhed his Perſpective; in which he is ſaid to have availed himſelf much of the writings of Pietro Della Franceſca, who died in 1443.

But omitting ſome other Authors on this ſubject, we ſhall obſerve, that in the year 1583, a book written by that celebrated architect (11) Giacomo Barozzi, of Vignola, entitled, *The two Rules of Perſpective*, was publiſhed, with a learned comment, by (12) Igna-

(10) Ignatius Danti, indeed, tells us, in his preface to Vignola, that the moſt antient Author on this art he had met with, was Pietro della Franceſca dal Borgo S. Sepolchro, who we think died in 1443; which makes him contemporary with Bramantino.

(11) Vignola, as this artiſt is uſually called, was born in the town of that name, in the year 1507, and died in 1573.

(12) The Author of the Abecedario Pittorico, gives the following account of Ignatius Danti. He was a Dominican Friar, born in Perugia:

Ignatius Danti; who, ten years before, had publiſhed the *Perſpective*, and the *Mirrors* of Euclid, together with the *Perſpective* of Heliodorus Lariſſeus: the whole illuſtrated with ſome brief, but uſeful annotations.

The firſt of theſe two rules (13), or methods of Perſpective, is performed by means of a line, which repreſents in profile the ſurface of the picture, and interſects the imaginary rays drawn from every part of the original object to the eye of the ſpectator; which line is therefore called the ſection-line, or, by the Italians, *linea del taglio*, or *parete*.

But this method (though he obſerves it was the moſt univerſally known, and eaſieſt comprehended, and hath with great accuracy explained it) he ſeems to reject, as being the moſt tedious and troubleſome in operation; and recommends, for its facility in practice, the ſecond method (14): which, by means of the horizon, or *vaniſhing line of horizontal planes*; the point of ſight, *or point to which the repreſentation of all lines perpendicular to the picture are drawn*; and the points of diſtance, *or vaniſhing points of all horizontal lines, which interſect the picture in an angle of forty-five degrees*; determines the form and dimenſions of every object which it is required to repreſent.

In the year 1625, the Cavalier Lorenzo Sirigatti publiſhed a treatiſe on Perſpective; which, though he calls it the child of his

rugia: "He was a coſmographer, and tranſlated the ſphere of Proclus Liceus, which he enriched with annotations; he was a mathematician, and read lectures on that ſcience in the public ſchools of Bologna; he was a painter, and the papal gallery of Gregory XIII. is painted by him. He publiſhed the life of Giacomo Barrozzi, and wrote the demonſtrations to his book of Perſpective:—For ſo many and ſuch praiſe-worthy accompliſhments, he was deſervedly promoted by the Pope, to the biſhopric of Alatri: where, ripe for (*eternal*) glory, he died, in the reign of Sixtus Quintus:"—*Happy age for painters! when, for their excellence in their art, they were rewarded with Biſhoprics in this world, and Heaven in the world to come!*

(13) Of theſe two methods, Vignola himſelf gives the following account, p. 52. '*E prima tratteraſſi della più nota, & più facile a conoſcerſi; ma più lunga, e più noioſa al operare; nella ſeconda ſi tratterà della più difficile a conoſcere, ma più facile ad eſeguire.*

(14) *Meſſer Jacomo Barrozzi da Vignola, mentre viſſe, come quello che fu ſempre liberaliſſimo delle fatiche ſue, inſegnando a diverſi la prattica della Perſpettiva; gli moſtrò ſempre queſta ſeconda Regola, e di queſta, ne dette copia a molti amici ſuoi; non perche non teneſſe conto neſſuno della prima precedente, ma perche, conoſceva queſta fra tutte l'altre Regole, eſſer la più eccellente.* DANTI, Preface to the ſecond method, p. 97.

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own brain, is no other than the firſt tedious and intricate method of Vignola; and which had been before deſcribed by Cataneo (15) and others. Nor do we ſee any thing new in his work, except the two threads which may, in ſome caſes, well ſupply the place of a ruler; and his working with two pair of compaſſes inſtead of one; but theſe little expedients do not, ſurely, deſerve the name of inventions: nor can we, at this diſtance of time, conceive what induced him to publiſh his book, after that ſo much ſuperior work of Vignola's had been forty-two years before the public. Indeed, ſince Vignola's time, it can hardly be ſaid, that the Italians have made any conſiderable improvement in the art of Perſpective.

Let us now ſee what hath been performed among ourſelves.

In England, the firſt book we meet with on this ſubject is written in French, by Solomon Caux (16), and dedicated, in 1612, to Prince Henry. It is remarkable, that he criticiſes Sirigatti (17) for not having repreſented a ball, or globe, properly, in perſpective; and he is certainly in the right: though his own delineation of the ſame ſubject is rather more intricate than that of Sirigatti.

Other books on Perſpective have appeared among us, originals as well as tranſlations; but all preceding Authors, as well thoſe of our own as of other nations, ſeem to be greatly ſurpaſſed by Dr. Brook Taylor; who has extended the principles of this art far beyond their antient limits, and has facilitated the practice in ſuch a manner, that operations which were before ſo tedious and intricate as to be hardly ſupportable to human patience, are now become ſo ſimple, and are executed with ſuch ſurprizing facility, that it can ſcarcely be ſaid a difficulty remains.

In order to this he has, as he profeſſes, been obliged to conſider his ſubject, as if it had never been treated of before; the principles of the old Perſpective being ſo narrow, and ſo confined, that they could be of no uſe to his deſign. He was obliged to invent new terms of art, thoſe already in uſe being ſo peculiarly adapted to the imperfect notions that have hitherto been entertained of this art, that he could make no uſe of them

(15) *Pietro Cataneo, ha poſto il modo medeſimo di Pietro del Borgo.* Ignazio Danti, Preface to Vignola. And as Pietro del Borgo died in 1443, it makes a ſtrange plagiary of Sirigatti.

(16) The title of this book is, *La Perſpective avec la Raiſon des Ombres et Mirroirs. Par Salomon de Caus, Ingenieur du ſereniſſime Prince de Galles, et dedié a ſon alteſſe. A Londres chez John Norton, Imprimeur du Roy de la Grande Bretaigne*, 1612.

(17) In the ſecond part of his eighteenth chapter.

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in explaining thoſe general principles he intended to eſtabliſh. The term of horizontal line, for inſtance, is apt to confine the Reader's notions to the plane of the horizon, and to make him imagine, that plane 'enjoys ſome particular privileges,' which make the figures in it more eaſy, and more convenient to be deſcribed, by means of that horizontal line, than the figures in any other plane; and, indeed, this was the caſe, before Dr. Taylor had ſhewn, that all other planes might be as 'conveniently handled' as the horizontal plane by finding lines that had the ſame relation to them, as the horizontal-line has to that plane. He has all through his book accompanied his theorems and problems with demonſtrations that are exact and full; in ſhort, nothing ſeems wanting except a greater perſpicuity of expreſſion: or, that our ſtudents in painting would apply themſelves with due attention to the elements of geometry.

Thus have we ſketched out the hiſtory of Perſpective, from its firſt invention, to our own times. In our Review for next month, we propoſe to conſider Mr. Kirby's *Brook Taylor made eaſy*, Mr. Ware's *Sirigatti*, Mr. Highmore's *Remarks on the Paintings in the Banquetting-houſe*, and Mr. Kirby's *Criticiſm on Mr. Ware*, &c.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1757.

POLITICAL.

Art. 1. *Motives for a Peace with England. Addreſſed to the French Miniſtry. By an old Sea Officer. Tranſlated from the French. Containing a critical Review of the preſent political Syſtem of the Court of France; ſhewing the dangerous Conſequences of reviving the ancient Spirit of the Britiſh Nation, by a Continuance of the preſent War; and proving the various Advantages reſulting from the ſuperior Policy of the French in Times of Peace, to be the moſt effectual Baſis for accompliſhing their long meditated Deſigns. In French and Engliſh.* 8vo. 6d. Reeve, &c.

WE are inclined to think, from the many *Angliciſms* we meet with in the *French* of this treatiſe, that the original and the tranſlation, are the work of the ſame pen, and both written by an *Engliſhman*.

The ingenious Author, whoever he is, in a very lively and animated ſtrain, rallies both the French and the Engliſh. He ridicules

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their Vain-glory, and intemperate Ambition; and has ſatyriſed *our* wretched Supineneſs, and miſerable Diſſentions.

The following ſhort extract may ſerve as a ſpecimen of this ſpirited performance.

'We have always gained more by fineſſe than by force. Our policy has given us Oſtend, and part of the Low Countries, as an equivalent for the ſuccours we give the Queen of Hungary to recover Silefia, and to ruin Germany. What muſt become of Holland, when once we are maſters of all Flanders? Shall we not then, once more, open the navigation of the Scheld, and tranſfer the commerce of Amſterdam to Antwerp, or ſome other city? Even this ſhould make us cautious, leſt the Dutch ſhould too ſoon ſee their own intereſt, and join with England. Can we imagine that the Engliſh will not exert their whole force to prevent the utter ruin of Holland, which would be the forerunner of their own? Give them not the opportunity: furniſh them not with the means of oppoſing the execution of our ſchemes, by an impolitic continuance of war, which cannot fail, in the end, being fatal to us.

'Give them peace; and they will ſoon return to their amuſements of elections, party, and faction.

'Give them peace; and their Miniſters muſt be directed by popular clamour, which we can always excite and encourage.

'Give them peace; and their navy will once more be laid up to rot, and their ſeamen and artificers once more be turned over to us.

'Give them peace; and their army will ſoon diminiſh, and the ſmall remains, under the conduct of a leſs able General than the preſent, will return to a paid militia.

'Give them peace; and we ſhall not fear the deſection of one or two of our preſent allies, which would ruin our preſent ſyſtem.

'Give them peace; and they will never think of ſchemes for increaſing their people, or for making every part of their dominions of real uſe to every other.

'Purſue ſteadily this plan for fifteen or twenty years, conſtantly directing the riches of the kingdom to the raiſing a navy equal, or ſuperior to that of England, and THEN, and not till then, ſhall we able to ſtrike the BLOW we have for above a century meditated.'

Art. 2. *Ways and Means whereby his Majeſty may Man his Navy with Ten Thouſand able Sailors, on ſhort Notice, with leſs Expence to the Government than at preſent, and entirely to the Benefit and Satisfaction of the Merchants, and the Nation in general. Dedicated to the Right Honourable William Pitt, Eſq;* 8vo. 1s. Pottinger.

This ſcheme is very well known, and the ſubſtance of it has been frequently publiſhed in the common News papers. It undoubtedly merits

merits the conſideration of the Legiſlature; for if ſome inſtitution of this nature was eſtabliſhed, it would tend to ſtrengthen and improve our naval power, and would put an end to that barbarous practice of *preſſing*, which ſeems ſo repugnant to the ſpirit of our conſtitution, and ſo highly deſtructive of the rights of free-born ſubjects.

The ſcheme itſelf does not occupy above twenty pages. But, by the help of a Dedication, a Preface, and an Advertiſement, it is induſtriouſly ſpun out to forty. The Advertiſement contains an abſtract of the ſcheme, publiſhed in the Amſterdam Gazette in the year 1726, which appears to be inſerted here with no other view than to enlarge the bulk of the pamphlet:—We cannot help condemning ſuch kind of Author-craft, as a ſhameful impoſition on the public.

Art. 3. *The Political Freethinker: or, a real and impartial Enquiry into the Cauſes of our late Miſcarriages, and our preſent melancholy Situation.* 8vo. 6d. Scott.

The bulk of our Readers are ſo eaſily enſnared by appearances, that the ſucceſs of a pamphlet is oftener owing to a ſtriking title-page, than to any other recommendation. We can diſcover no other kind of merit in the piece before us, which might induce a ſecond edition*; for ſo far from being a real and impartial enquiry into the *cauſes* of our late Miſcarriages, it is rather a melancholy recapitulation of our paſt miſconduct, and ill fortune.

We do not find that, in the courſe of forty-four pages, the Author has ſtated one fact, or offered a ſingle obſervation, which has not been pre-occupied by the common News-papers.

Taking upon him to conſider, whether any ſecret article in the famous Convention, could be productive of the ill ſucceſs of our late Expedition, he ſays, (what in effect has been ſaid before)—'The 'impracticability of any freſh orders being ſent, in conſequence of the 'advice of ſigning the Convention, to countermand the inſtructions 'of Ad—l H—e and G——l M——t, bearing date the 5th of Au'guſt, *muſt* be *evident*, when we conſider, that the Viper ſloop, which 'ſailed from Plymouth the 17th of September, carried with her Mr. 'Pitt's Letter, bearing date the 15th of that month, which was two 'days before the arrival of the News of ſigning the Convention; 'and that the Viper ſloop carried the laſt orders that were ſent to the 'Comm—rs, while they were in the Bay of Biſcay.'

This *impracticability* (as our accurate pamphleteer calls it) *may* be evident from other circumſtances, but we deny that it *muſt* be evident, from the arguments he has brought to prove it. He tells us himſelf, that Mr. Lamb, the Meſſenger, arrived at Whitehall with the Convention of Neutrality, the 19th of September; and that the Viper ſloop ſailed but two days before that time. Now it is natural to conclude, that the Government knew, before Mr. Lamb's arrival on the 19th, that the Convention *was*, or *would be*, ſigned; and there-

* A ſecond edition of this pamphlet has, however, been advertiſed.

fore ſecret orders might have been diſpatched by the Viper ſloop, notwithſtanding ſhe ſailed two days before the Convention arrived. But men who are inclined to think that our operations were checked by that treaty of neutrality, may, perhaps, carry their ſuſpicions further. They may ſuggeſt that ſecret orders were ſent originally with the fleet, which ſailed the 8th of September, in conſequence of the treaty's being then in agitation, and perhaps concluded, as to the ſubſtance of it—They may inſinuate, that the Viper was only ſent to beget an opinion that the expedition was ſeriouſly purſued, notwithſtanding the Convention; and that the viſible orders ſhe carried might be controlled by a repetition of the original ſecret orders, of ſubſequent date,—They may aſk why that ſloop was ſent, about a week after the fleet ſailed, and upon an uncertainty of meeting the fleet, without any other apparent errand, than that of enlarging the time of their ſtay in the Bay of Biſcay?—They may aſk why the time was limited at all, in the original orders, unleſs to leave an opportunity open of ſending vigorous inſtructions after the Convention, by way of blind?—They may intimate, that it could not be to prevent the ſhips being endangered in the Bay, becauſe Ad—l H—e, after he came home, ſailed into the Bay again, and was there later in the ſeaſon than the time even ſpecified in the laſt orders ſent by the Viper. And they may conſider the publication of thoſe orders in the Gazette, as one of thoſe acts which create ſuſpicion, by an over-eagerneſs to obviate doubts.

We would not be underſtood to countenance theſe airy ſuſpicions ourſelves: we know they are only to be ſupported by mere ſophiſtry, and groundleſs *preſumption*; and only mention them to ſhew the Author, that what he thinks *muſt be evident*, is, nevertheleſs, controvertible; and that though he may be a Free-thinker, he is very far from being a Deep-thinker.

Art. 4. *An Enquiry into the Cauſes of our ill Succeſs in the preſent War.* 8vo. 1s. Griffiths.

Another Enquirer! who, inſtead of tracing *cauſes*, mortifies us with a diſmal detail of known *effects*. It is to be wiſhed, that theſe ſagacious Gentlemen, who amuſe themſelves with enquiring after remote cauſes, would employ their ingenuity in deviſing ſome effectual remedies to relieve us in our preſent diſtreſs.

However, it is but juſtice to acknowlege, that this little piece contains the moſt clear and ſuccinct account of our conduct with regard to America, that we remember to have ſeen; at leaſt in ſo ſmall a compaſs: and the melancholy recapitulation cannot fail to affect every Reader who has a regard for the honour and welfare of his country.

Art. 5. *Public Injuries require Public Juſtice: or, an Enquiry into the Cauſes of the Miſcarriage of the late Secret Expedition, &c. To which is prefixed, an accurate Map of the French Coaſt, &c.* 8vo. 1s. H. Owen.

More

More Enquiry ſtill! but no real enquiry yet; this being a mere catch-penny compilation, from the public papers, and from pamphlets which are in every one's hands.

Specimen, of the modern Grubean-ſtile,—from page 20 of this pamphlet.

' —If the debarkation could have been *done* by moonlight, why ' was it deferred till morning?—But if the Generals had ſufficient ' grounds—for poſtponing the affair till daylight, pray, why was it ' not undertaken then?' [Well ſaid, honeſt Grub!] ' If they thought ' it more becoming the character of an Engliſhman to have his enemy ' in full view, and face to face, than to fight him in *bugger-mugger* ' and, as it were, by the glimmer of a dark lanthorn—why did they ' not take this more honourable method?'——Bravo! moſt noble Grub! Let them anſwer theſe queſtions of thine if they dare:—and then thou wilt have an opportunity of refuting them—*in a ſixpenny Second Part.*

Art. 6. *Serious Reflections on the preſent State of domeſtic and foreign Affairs; humbly ſubmitted to the conſideration of both Houſes of Parliament. Together with ſome critical remarks on lotteries, and propoſals for a new lottery, which will be in a particular manner pleaſing and agreeable to his Majeſty's ſubjects. By* James Burrow, *Gent.* 8vo. 1 s. Scott.

As a reflector, and projector, Mr. Burrow might be thought a worthy competitor with the ingenious Mr. Henriques; ſave that the latter appears to be rather more diſintereſted than the former, who appropriates to himſelf, out of his numerous lottery-ſchemes, a ſum of no leſs than from ſix to ſeven thouſand pounds.—Indeed, he aſſures you, that upon that ſum being advanced, he will heartily ſet himſelf about finding the longitude, and does not doubt of effecting the diſcovery.—Memorandum—our projector does not mean, by this propoſal, in any wiſe to relinquiſh the reward appointed by parliament for this hitherto uneffected ſervice.

Art. 7. *Collections of Caſes, Memorials, Addreſſes, and Proceedings in Parliament, relating to inſolvent debtors, cuſtoms, and exciſes, admiralty-courts, and the valuable liberties of citizens. To which are added, Obſervations on the Embargo in Ireland.* 8vo. 2 s. Griffiths.

This Collection is introduced with a ſenſible and ſpirited addreſs to the Right Hon. Arthur Onſlow, Eſq; ſigned James Digges-Latouche. Many of the papers herein contained appear to have been drawn by the ſame gentleman;—who every where ſeems animated by a generous ſpirit of patriotiſm, and a warm concern for the liberties of his fellow citizens. We, happily, as Britons, are leſs affected by the cauſes of thoſe complaints here exhibited, and for redreſs of which ſuch laudable ſolliciation has been made, than our fellow ſubjects of Ireland are; nevertheleſs, we cannot help feeling for our brethren of that royal kingdom,

kingdoms, whose fidelity to the government, and zeal for the Protestant religion, render them worthy of better treatment at our hand than we have, hitherto, thought fit to afford them.

Art. 8. *A plain Address to the Farmers, Labourers, and Commonalty of Norfolk, &c.* 8vo. 6d. Tovey.

This Address is, intended to convince the Community of Norfolk, 'that it is as much the interest of the 'lower as the higher rank of men, to promote a national Militia.'

Art. 9. *A Cabinet Council; or, Secret History of Lewis XIV. In which the grand Scheme was concerted for assassinating King William; the conquering Holland; re-establishing King James upon the Throne of these Kingdoms; the Subversion of the German Empire; and enslaving the rest of Europe.* 12mo. 3s. Woodgate and Brookes.

'The Reader, by perusing this tract, will clearly perceive, that 'tho' King, Ministers, and Circumstances are changed, the same spi'rit presides over French councils, tho' at different periods; and 'Lewis XV. is but what his predecessor was; the invariable maxim 'of both being, to divide and conquer.'—Thus speaks this Compiler concerning his own performance: but surely never yet did any dabbler in politics presume to enter the cabinet of Kings, with less knowlege of the manners of a Court.—Lewis XIV. is here represented as consulting with his Ministers, in the stile of a Gambler, and issuing his orders in the language of a Captain of Banditti: so that whatever good effect the Author might propose from his labours, his execution must render them highly disgustful to every intelligent Reader.—In short, his materials are so ill chosen, and the workmanship is so coarse, as to render the whole fabrication unworthy of public notice.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 10. *An Appeal to the Public; against the growing Evil of Universal Register-Offices; otherwise called Agency and Intelligence-Offices for Masters and Servants; the Loan of Money, and Sale of Estates, &c. &c. In which the various Frauds and Impositions generally practised by the Proprietors of these Offices, are clearly and impartially exposed to public View. By* Philanthropos. 8vo. 6d. Cooper.

Merits the attention of the Public.

Art. 11. *Seasonable Considerations upon the Corn-Trade, as it respects the Land-Owner, Tenant or Farmer, the Miller, and Baker, and the poor and labouring Part of the People, &c. &c. By a* true born Englishman and Lover of his Country. 8vo. 1s. Cooke.

Calculated chiefly for the meridian of the town of Nottingham, where the pamphlet was printed. To ſay more of this production would be doing its *true-born* Author more honour than he is intitled to.

Art. 12. *The Cauſes of the preſent high Price of Corn and Grain; and a State of the Abuſes and Impoſitions practiced upon the Public in general, and the Poor in particular, by the Millers or Meal-men. With Hints for a Law, for reducing the preſent Price of Corn; to prevent its ever riſing ſo high for the future, and for correcting and preventing the Abuſes and Impoſitions of the Millers or Meal-men.* 8vo. 6d. Cooper.

Deſerves to be conſidered, as the Author ſeems pretty well acquainted with the ſubject.

Art. 13. *An authentic Letter from Magdeburg, to a Gentleman of Diſtinction, containing a particular Account of the great and compleat Victory obtained by the King of Pruſſia over the Auſtrian Army at Liſſa. Printed from the original French, with an Engliſh Tranſlation.* 4to. 6d. Cooper.

This having been copied into the News-papers, it is unneceſſary for us to ſay any thing more of it.

Art. 14. *A ſhort Account of the late Expedition to the Coaſt of France. By* one who attended the Examination at Whitehall. 8vo. 6d. Cooper.

We are at ſome loſs to conclude whether this was intended merely as a catch-penny, or as a defence of thoſe who were entruſted with the conduct of the expedition: but, in either caſe, we apprehend the deſign will not be anſwered.

Art. 15. *The Secret Expedition impartially diſcloſed; or, an authentic, faithful Narrative of all Occurrences that happened to the Fleet and Army commanded by Sir E. H——, and Sir J— M———, from its firſt Sailing to its Return to England. With apparent Reaſons for not landing the Infantry, and many other intereſting Particulars, not yet made public. By a* Commiſſioned Officer on board the Fleet, and Graduate of the Univerſity, &c. 8vo. 1s. Staples, &c.

This appears to be a genuine, and is certainly an entertaining account; abounding with circumſtances not previouſly made public; and, as the Author expreſſes himſelf, in the concluſion of the pamphlet, 'accounting for every hour of the Voyage.'

Art. 16. *An Appendix to the Occaſional Critic, &c.* 8vo. 6d. Cooper.

In

In our laſt Review, we beſtowed on this ill-mannered Writer the chaſtiſement he deſerved: and though we were ſenſible that it would give him pain for the preſent, yet we hoped it might be of ſervice to him in the end. But, alas! he is too far gone, and proves quite incorrigible!—Indeed, we might have foreſeen that our kind endeavours for his good would be ineffectual, had we recollected the wiſe Man's obſervation——

"Though thou ſhouldſt bray a Fool in a mortar, yet will not "his fooliſhneſs depart from him."

Art. 17. *The Hiſtory of Mademoiſelle Cronel—&c. Tranſlated from the French.* 12mo. 1s. 6d. Dawe.

The obſcene and illiterate production of ſome profligate French ſcribbler; who has here met with a Tranſlator worthy of ſuch an original.

Art. 18. *The Hiſtory of Sir Roger and his Son Joe.* 12mo. 2 vols. 6s. Scott.

Low, dull, and illiterate, to the laſt degree.

Art. 19. *The Voyages, Travels, and wonderful Diſcoveries of Capt. John Holmſby, containing a Series of the moſt ſurprizing and uncommon Events which befel the Author in his Voyage to the Southern Ocean, in the Year* 1739. 12mo. 3s. Noble.

Something better than the preceding article: but, bad is the beſt of the two: neither of them merit further notice.—Query, Whether Capt. Holmſby is not the Gentleman who imported the *amazing dromedary*, and the *lofty camel*?

Art. 20. *The Hiſtory of Miſs Sally Sable.* By the Author of Memoirs of a Scotch Family *. 12mo. 2 vols. 6s. Noble.

Like the reſt of them.

* See Review, vol. XV, page 656.

Art. 21. *A Letter from a Porter in the City, to the Lords and Commons of Great Britain, &c.* 8vo. 6d. Cooper.

This pretended Porter exhibits a moving complaint of the hardſhips put upon him by one *Francis Freeman*, commonly called *Frank*. The true meaning of this is not obvious at firſt ſight of the pamphlet; the Key to which is ſo artfully concealed, that every Reader will not be able to unlock the myſtery, till he has gone through about a dozen pages; but, by that time, indeed, if he has any tolerable diſcernment, he will begin to perceive, that by Francis Freeman is meant, the privilege of Franking Letters; that our injured Porter is, the General Poſt-Office in Lombard-ſtreet;—and that the pamphlet itſelf is a very ingenious and humourous production.

Art. 22. *Modern Europe: or a Compendious Hiſtory of the Kingdoms and States in Europe; containing what is remarkable relating to their reſpective Governments, Land and Sea Forces, Metropoliſes, Univerſities, Number of Inhabitants, Trade, Religion, Genius, Language, Intereſts, and Views. With a clear and conciſe Hiſtory of the Houſe of Bourbon in France, its Views, Intrigues, and Influence in all the Courts of Europe. To which are added, ſeveral new uſeful, political, and hiſtorical Tables, with a Map of Europe. Dedicated to the Right Hon. William Pitt, Eſq;* 12mo. 2s. Dilly.

This Compendium is deſigned for the uſe of young people, and ſeems to be judiciouſly adapted both for their Inſtruction and Entertainment.

Art. 23. *Poiſon Detected: or, Frightful Truths; and alarming to the Britiſh Metropolis. In a Treatiſe on Bread; and the Abuſes practiſed in making that Food. As occaſioning the Decreaſe and Degeneracy of the People; deſtroying Infants, and producing innumerable Diſeaſes. Shewing alſo the Virtues of good Bread, and the Manner of making it. To which is added, a Charge to the Confederacy of Bakers, Corn-Dealers, Farmers and Millers; concerning ſhort Weight, Adulterations, and artificial Scarcities; with eaſy Methods to prevent all ſuch Abuſes. By my Friend, a Phyſician.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Dodſley, and others.

To expoſe the Frauds and Abuſes committed in the Manufacture of Bread, eſpecially in this metropolis, to point out the miſchiefs ariſing from thoſe frauds, and to provide for their future prevention, are the profeſſed purpoſes of this publication. The Author's deſign may juſtly be allowed commendation, but unhappily he has ſpoiled it by his execution.—The Bakers are accuſed of mixing *alum* and *ground bones* with the paſte, and the Meal-men and Millers of adding chalk, lime, and whiting to the flour, and theſe in ſuch conſiderable quantities, (if all be true, that is here aſſerted) as muſt be diſcoverable to even the moſt indelicate taſte. But, indeed, it may not unreaſonably be believed, that our Author's zeal for a reformation of theſe abuſes may have hurried him to ſome exaggeration of them; however, practices of the ſort here mentioned, (and there is ſufficient room to apprehend them too prevalent,) certainly merit notice, and reſtraint.

In a performance of this kind, intended, as muſt be preſumed, for public utility, ſurely the rendering it univerſally comprehenſible ought not to have been its Author's leaſt care: whereas, on the contrary, this Writer ſeems to have taken pains to be obſcure: having affected a ſingularity of expreſſion that muſt make him no leſs unintelligible to common Readers, than diſagreeable to the learned. Nor are his phyſical reaſonings much better calculated to convince, than his language is to perſuade.

We are ſaved the trouble of making a particular analyſis of this pamphlet

pamphlet by the ſubjoined, which, at the ſame time, may ſerve to ſhew the Author's opinion of his own importance.

Art. 24. *A Letter to the Right Honourable William Pitt, Eſq; one of his Majeſty's principal Secretary's of State; relating to the Abuſes practiced by Bakers, Corn-Dealers, Farmers, and Millers; in conſequence of a Pamphlet intitled,* Poiſon Detected; *which that Confederacy is ſuppoſe to have endeavoured to ſuppreſs.* 8vo. 6d. Cooper.

Mr. Pitt is here preſented, to uſe the Author's own words, with the preceding pamphlet in miniature; whereby the inquiſitive Reader may alſo ſatisfy his curioſity at little trouble or expence. Our Author alſo further informs us, that his endeavours have alarmed the confederacy of Bakers, 'who combine, *vi et armis*, to impede the progreſs of truth:' nay, he ſuſpects, that they [the Bakers] 'will not fail to exaſperate the virulence of venal pens upon his performance, to contaminate it with the malice of hireling hypercriticiſm.' Nevertheleſs he tells us, that his labours have produced ſome good effects; particularly, that 'ſome of the Bakers have already turned informers againſt their brothers in iniquity;' that others have offered to make their bread according to his directions; and that it is probable one of the largeſt pariſhes in Weſtminſter will ſoon embrace his advice. The concluſion of this addreſs we give as a ſpecimen of our Author's ſtile.

'If, Sir, you cannot increaſe our unincreaſable dignity and honour, ſurely no excuſe can be ſuggeſted to prevent your ſaving our lives. If it is impracticable to fulminate the vengeance of injured Britain upon her foes, no good man can ever reproach for a crime, ſurely, the ſaving of her children from the rapacity of each other; to ſave us is as meritorious as to diſtreſs our enemies; which cannot be, perhaps more effectually accompliſhed than by ſtrengthening ourſelves. Redreſs then theſe domeſtic enormities, you ſave the land. It is they that enervate the ſtrength, vituperate the health, impair the ſpirit, diſanimate exertion, render contemptible, puſillanimous, and defultory, the once venerated men of England; reform theſe abuſes, we may *immerge* into Liberty and Reſpect, and once more become a gloriouſly formidable, happy community.

'Eradicate oppreſſive combinations, and they will exert themſelves at home, the moſt formidable receſs of their enemies; and extricate themſelves from theſe embarraſſing perplexities with which ſubdolous and crafty men have found ſome intereſt in entangling them; to prevent the exertions of ſcrutiny and juſtice upon thoſe private enormities in which they found themſelves too deeply concerned to endanger expoſure; hence the people are benumbed, that they cannot execute valour abroad, leſt they are enabled to execute juſtice at home; involved in ambiguities, confuſion, oppreſſion, iniquity and ſhame, the very men of England, with aching hearts, ſee the great nation who formerly ill dared to look them in the face; as an enemy, now, even laugh at their infatuation, and contumeliouſly deride their in-

significance, making their constant disappointment a subject of jocular mockery.

'From you alone the people of England derive hopes of redress in their national abuses.—And under the auspices of your propitiated help and protection, there is, perhaps, good reason to expect a sufficient reformation in those important abuses, which caused you the trouble of these sheets. But whilst it was my design to vindicate my compatriots, the length of my letter defeats my purpose, by avocating upon my attempt that time you dedicate to their service, in this most important juncture.'—All this may sound very finely, and be very well meant:——what a pity it is, that it cannot be as readily understood!

Art. 25. *The Nature of Bread, honestly and dishonestly made; and its effects as prepared at present on unhealthy and healthy persons. With a sure way of discovering alum and other mixtures in bread. And an easy method of making it in private families. To which are added, some Thoughts addressed to the Legislature, for the relief of the Poor.* By James Manning, *M.D.* 8vo. 1 s. R. Davis.

The same sentiments, though not the same manner of expression, furnish this pamphlet as the two preceding.—Whether all the three are not the production of the same pen, whatever we may reasonably believe, we dare not positively determine: nor can we with any greater degree of certainty say, whether the name affixed to this last publication is real or fictitious. The same purpose is evidently pursued thro' all, as may be sufficiently learnt from their several titles: however, Dr. Manning does not affect the Hurlothrumbo style of *Poison detected*; he writes intelligibly, and, to appearance, with feeling. Nevertheless, it may, not unreasonably, be concluded, that his Thoughts addressed to the Legislature, are somewhat premature, seeing the grievances he wishes to have redress'd, have attracted the earliest attention of the Parliament.—A bill is already passed to prevent the exportation of corn, or its being employed in the distillery; another bill is depending for the due making of bread, and to regulate the price and assize thereof; and a committee is appointed to take into consideration the present high price of grain, meal, flower, bread, biscuit, and starch.

Art. 26. *A modest Apology in Defence of the Bakers, against a certain pamphlet, called* Poison Detected. *By* Sampson Syllogism, *a Baker.* 8vo. 1 s. Scott.

This, instead of a *Defence*, is an ironical *Attack* on the Bakers: But Mr. Syllogism seems to have stepped, indeed, very indecently, out of his way, to have a stroke at Majesty.—As a specimen of our Author's manner, take the conclusion of his pamphlet.—'We [the Bakers] have 'amply proved, ever, and persist in it, that our grand invention of 'feeding the people upon lime, chalk, whiting, ground bones, and 'alum,

'alum, inſtead of corn, does create plenty in the land, abate diſeaſes, 'increaſe riches, pour bleſſings upon infants, quiet popular clamours, 'prevent inſurrections and the effuſion of much blood; increaſe the 'revenue;---a great argument with our ſuperiors, may pay off the 'national debt, and does greatly contribute to the emolument of ſo 'valuable, ſo conſiderable, ſo uſeful, and ſo juſt a body of men as 'the Bakers.'

POETICAL.

Art. 27. *Frederic Victorieux. Poëme Héroïque en Trois Chants Dedié a Son Excellence Milord-Duc de Marlborough, Général et Grand-Maître de l'Artillerie de ſa Majeſté, le Roy de la Grand Bretagne, &c. &c. &c.* 4to. 1s. London, printed for C. G. Seyffert.

We cannot ſay that this Poet has the *Os magna Sonaturum*, or that he is worthy to celebrate the actions of the Hero he extols. But, nevertheleſs, we would not have our Bard diſcouraged; greater pens might fail on ſuch a theme, for the character of the Pruſſian Monarch is above all deſcription. Valour, the common topic of epic poetry, is the leaſt part of his merit; the meaneſt ſoldier in his army ſhares that in common with the heroic Leader. His ſkill, his wiſdom, his perſeverance, but, above all, that magnanimity of ſoul, which dares to confeſs its errors, is what moſtly deſerves our admiration.

If, however, the Poet under inſpection, is not tranſported with that *divino Afflatu*, which ſoars to the heights of Parnaſſus, yet he glows with that generous indignation, which inclines us to think him a worthy Citizen, and a well-wiſher to Britain. We cannot but applaud his reſentment againſt thoſe French who, while they reſide among us, inſolently deride our nation, and ungratefully wiſh its deſtruction, though they receive protection from our laws, and are nouriſhed with the bread of our country.

The following indignant verſes, are directed to theſe inſidious vipers.

Excrémens de la France, Ennemis des Anglois
Vous laſſés la bonté du plus Clément des Rois.
Partiſans trop outrés de vos gens déſpotiques,
Soïez moins inſolens & plus fins Politiques.
Sachez que Frederic & George ſont unis
Et qu'il eſt dangereux d'être leurs ennemis;
Foibles gens exilés, reſpectez leur puiſſance,
Apprenez à vous taire, ou retournéz en France;
De la bonté de George, admirez tous les traits.
Quand Louïs, de la France exilant les Anglois
Il vous permet François, de vivre ici tranquilles
Et de reſter en paix au millieu de ſes villes.—

The following vehement lines againſt Voltaire, ſhew the zeal of the man, though, perhaps, they do not greatly advance the reputation of the Poet.

Mais, toi, Poëte errant, ingrat & mercenaire,
Dont le nom aujourd'hui mépriſé du vulgaire
Ainſi que des ſcavans, qui malgré tes écrits
N'ont conſervé pour toi qu'un Souverain mépris,
Dis moi, homme perfide, impoſteur, & ſans Ame,
En quoi ce Roi vainqueur a merité le blâme
Dont tu veut le couvrir? ingrat à ſes bienfaits,
Tu lâches contre lui tes ſatiriques traits,
Des efforts impuiſſants de ta verve mourante,
Et le poiſon mortel de ton ame méchante.
Dis moi, quel Souverain tranquille en ſes Etats

Ménacé ſourdement par trois grands Potentats,
N'eut agi comme lui, pour ſa propre aſſurance,
Prévenant les deſſeins de la Triple-Alliance?

Art. 28. *Philander, a dramatic Paſtoral.* By the Author of the Female Quixote. 8vo. 1s. Millar.

The ſubject of this performance, as in all others of the kind, is *Love*; the Dramatis Perſonæ are Nymphs, Shepherds, Satyrs, and the whole *Poſſe Comitatus* of Arcadia. Thoſe who are admirers of this ſpecies of poetry, will not think their time thrown away in the peruſal of this ſpecimen of what Mrs. Lennox is able to do in the Paſtor-Fido-way. The piece is poetical, romantic, and pretty enough, upon the whole:—in fine, it is altogether worthy the Author of the Female Quixote.

Art. 29. *The Male-Coquette: or, Seventeen Hundred Fifty-ſeven. In two Acts. As it is performed at the Theatre-Royal in Drury-Lane.* 8vo. 1s. Vaillant.

A general ſatire on the character mentioned in the title-page;—alſo on theſe wretches of diſtinction who ſo idly, and abſurdly, laviſh away their time, and their fortunes, in the faſhionable diſſipations of *betting, pitting, matching*, and other modes of genteel gambling: the very terms of which are as much a diſgrace to our language, as the vice itſelf is to its infatuated Devotees.

MEDICAL *and* MEDICO-CONTROVERSIAL.

Art. 30. *A ſecond Diſſertation on the Motion of the Blood, and Effects on Bleeding; being a Collection of two hundred thirty-five anatomical Experiments made on living Animals, with uſeful Reſults therefrom. By the learned and celebrated Dr.* Albert Haller, *Preſident of the Royal Society of Sciences at Gottingen, &c. &c. Tranſlated by a Phyſician.* 8vo. 2s. Brown, Whiſton, *&c.*

Theſe Experiments were communicated in March 1756, by the celebrated Author, to the Society wherein he preſides. The doctrines intended to be hereby illuſtrated and confirmed, having been, amply

amply noticed in our Review for laſt Auguſt, page 122, renders any further notice of this ſecond Diſſertation unneceſſary.—— Had we, indeed, been previouſly acquainted with the Engliſh Tranſlator, we might, perhaps, have recommended to him, to have intitled his labours, *A Liſt of the Victims ſacrificed to the induſtrious Dr. Haller's Opinion and Curioſity.*

Art. 31. *Letters of Dr. Lucas and Dr. Oliver, occaſioned by a phyſical Confederacy at Bath.* 8vo. 6d. Griffiths.

Art. 32. *A Narrative of Facts, demonſtrating the actual Exiſtence and true Cauſe of that Confederacy made known to the Public, in the printed Letters of Dr. Lucas and Dr. Oliver. By William Baylies, M.D.* 4to. 6d. Hitch.

The obvious connection between theſe two performances, is our reaſon for tacking them together.—Conſidered jointly, they form one BILL of COMPLAINT, in which Meſſrs. Charles Lucas and William Baylies, appear as *Complainants*, againſt William Oliver, Abel Moyſey, and Rice Charlton, *Defendants**.—The ſaid Charles Lucas chargeth William Oliver, one of the ſaid Defendants, with having, in a written epiſtle, bearing date Nov. 7, 1757, declared, that he will never thereafter 'hold any conſultation, controverſy, or converſation,' with him the ſaid Complainant: and William Baylies, the other Complainant, chargeth, that the ſaid Rice Charlton, one other of the ſaid Defendants, hath openly refuſed to join in conſultation with him, the ſaid Complainant, when thereunto required: and the ſaid Complainant alſo chargeth, that the ſaid William Oliver and Abel Moyſey have, jointly and ſeverally, not only encouraged, aided, and abetted the ſaid Defendant Rice Charleton, in that behalf, not to join in conſultation with ſaid Complainant, but that they have likewiſe themſelves declared, that they, and each of them, will never join in any conſultation with the ſaid Complainants or either of them.—And theſe Complainants, jointly and ſeverally inſiſt that they have been well inſtructed, and are well verſed, in the arts of pharmacy and chemiſtry, and have for ſome time paſt been introduced to the practical myſteries of phyſic, in which they have made ſome, before unheard of and truly valuable, diſcoveries; but that by the confederacy of them the ſaid Defendants, it is very probable that many invalids may be deprived of the advantage of their reciprocal labours, and the ſaid Complainants rendered of leſs importance and utility, to the ſick, more eſpecially at *Bath*, than they wiſh or deſire to be:—and, in courſe, to the great loſs and detriment of them the ſaid Complainants. Wherefore they, the ſaid Complainants, have exhibited this their Complaint before the *Bar* of the *Public*†.

* The Parties on both ſides profeſs to practice phyſic.

† Our Readers are deſired not to forget, that the Doctors Lucas and Baylies have before now exhibited themſelves in print.

Thus

Thus ſtands the caſe with reſpect to the Complainants.—The Defendants have not yet put in their anſwers; and whether they will think it worth their while to reply or not, is yet uncertain. Perhaps they may inſiſt, that the caſe is *coram non judice*.—The parties are alike ſtrangers to us, but were we retained Counſel with the Defendants, we ſhould pray that the Complainants Bill be referred for *Scandal* and *Impertinence*.

Art. 33. *A Supplement to Obſervations on the Internal Uſe of the Nightſhade, by* Thomas Gataker, *Surgeon to the Weſtminſter Hoſpital.* 8vo. 6d. Dodſley.

The obſervations to which this Supplement is now added, were taken notice of in our Review for laſt July, p. 92, and with that reſpect we really thought due to them. Further experience of this medicine has enabled Mr. Gataker to determine a point he had before left doubtful; he is convinced that the Nightſhade is not poſſeſſed of any *ſpecific* properties; that 'it is not to be conſidered as relative to only one diſeaſe, but to be regarded as it may affect the common diſcharges of the body.' In proof of this he candidly mentions the return of ſome of thoſe complaints which in his former account appeared to have been cured. He here alſo relates ſeveral additional cancerous caſes, in which the Nightſhade was found to be of little or no efficacy. From having obſerved ſome diſagreeable ſymptoms follow the uſe of the *deadly*, he recommends the *garden* Nightſhade; for the more efficacious adminiſtration of which, and to prevent any injury ariſing from the experiment, he offers the following directions.

'Bleeding, a purge, or a vomit, either one or all, ſhould generally precede the uſe of this medecine.—The infuſion of one grain is as much as ever ſhould be given for the firſt doſe.—The medicine ſhould be generally given at night, as the neceſſary confinement in bed during the height of the perſpiration, and the drowſineſs which ſometimes enſues, may be diſagreeable in the day.—It ſeldom happens, that more than one doſe is proper in twenty-four hours; nor ſhould, in general, the doſe be repeated oftner, than every ſecond or third night.—If it does not operate by ſtool, ſome other medicine ſhould be given, either with the Nightſhade, or in a reaſonable time after it, that may conſtantly keep the body open; and this circumſtance is particularly to be attended to.—No good effect can be expected from this medicine, unleſs it operates by perſpiration, urine, or ſtool. If after trying enlarged doſes, the quantity of five or ſix grains does not produce a very conſiderable increaſe of ſome of theſe diſcharges, a further uſe of the medicine is not adviſeable; for though a larger doſe might poſſibly have the effect, the operation of the medicine will not be regular enough afterwards to be ſerviceable.—If the ſymptoms ſeem to be aggravated after the ſecond doſe, a continuance of the medicine will be generally improper.—If giddineſs, head-ach, or ſickneſs continue very troubleſome, after the ſecond or third doſe, a perſeverence in the uſe of the Nightſhade

ſhade will ſeldom be adviſeable; though in ſome inſtances where this has happened, the medicine has operated afterwards without any conſiderable inconvenience.—If the patient is hot or thirſty, in the night, after taking the infuſion, he ſhould drink ſome warm diluting liquor, in order to encourage a free diſcharge by perſpiration and urine, and to relieve the ſtomach where there is a diſpoſition to vomit.'

To theſe admonitions ſucceed our Author's endeavours to obviate the objections that have been made to this medicine. With reſpect to a principal accuſation, (that paralytic complaints have been occaſioned by the uſe of it) he modeſtly obſerves, 'that ſuch accidents may happen, as we ſee they ſometimes occur in the uſe of other ſtrong medicines, and as we find by ſeveral of the ſymptoms, eſpecially where the *deadly* Nightſhade is given, that this medicine acts very powerfully upon the nerves of ſome people.'—Nevertheleſs, he declares that he never met with an inſtance of this ſort; and mentions a paralytic caſe in which the *garden* Nightſhade apparently proved ſerviceable.

Two other caſes here related give reaſon to believe, that this medicine may be uſed to advantage in ſome hydropical diſorders; at leaſt they are ſufficient to entitle it to further experience.—Dr. Mead has furniſhed a hiſtory, in which opiates joined with diuretics produced a happy effect in this diſeaſe *, when the latter had been ineffectually tried without the aid of the former. Nightſhade, beſides its alleged general efficacy upon all the animal ſecretions, appears, according to our Author, to be poſſeſſed of ſome narcotic qualities.

In the concluſion of his performance, Mr. Gataker ingenioufly acknowleges, that he has already obſerved the event of ſome caſes to have diſappointed his firſt hopes, by the cure's being incompleat, or only temporary; that he has likewiſe found the operation of the medicine to be irregular, and the uſe of it, in many inſtances, if perſevered in, to be attended with troubleſome ſymptoms; therefore, that 'it ſeems to be a medicine not ſo much calculated for general uſe, as for particular caſes, where the common remedies have failed; and where this proves upon trial to be free from the principal inconveniences which ſometimes attend the uſe of it.'——*Indeed, Mr. Gataker, this candour and integrity will effectually exclude you from making any figure among thoſe dealers in ſpecifics, who, upon the ſlighteſt ſucceſs, aſſume nothing leſs than infallibility.*

* *Monitis et Præceptis Medica.* p. 139, ſeq.

Art. 34. *An Account of the Engliſh Nightſhades, and their effects, with the original caſe of Dr. Lambergen, as delivered in his inaugural theſis. Alſo practical obſervations on the uſe of corroſive Sublimate, and Sarſaparilla; on the different effects of Mercury crude, and when prepared by chemiſtry. And ſome hints offered to the Faculty, on the cure of the Lues Venerea, by the ſecretion of urine in-*

inſtead of ſalivation. By William Bromfield, *Surgeon to her Royal Highneſs the Princeſs Dowager of Wales, and to St. George's, and the Lock Hoſpitals.* 12mo. 2s. Baldwin.

Reaſon and judgment are not only alike uſeful, but equally neceſſary to direct the application of medicines; nevertheleſs, it is from experience alone we can come at a due knowlege of their real effects. The immediately preceding article gives the reſult of Mr. Gataker's obſervations on the internal uſe of the Solanum.—This furniſhes Mr. Bromfield's trials of, and opinion upon, the ſame ſubject. Theſe gentlemen do not, with reſpect to this Simple, perfectly accord in their ſentiments; the former, as has been already ſeen, admits its efficacy to be uncertain, but ſeems to believe, that under the limitations he has preſcribed, it may generally be adminiſtered with ſafety, and ſometimes with advantage. The latter declares, he never found it greatly beneficial, but, on the contrary, thinks, that, for the moſt part, its uſe has been attended with actual danger to the patient. Mr. Gataker has been allowed to ſpeak for himſelf, and it is now Mr. Bromfield's turn.

As this gentleman, as well as Mr. Gataker, appears not to have any other view than medical communication, it is but paying due reſpect to the former, to follow him methodically.

He prefaces his work with ſome pertinent cenſures on the miſchiefs ariſing from an indiſcriminate diſpenſation of medicines. The aſſuming ignorance of bold empirics, and the ill-judged benevolence of the good Lady Bountifuls, are both objects of his juſt reſentment. To this is added, an extract from Dr. Lambergen's inaugural theſis, giving an account of the ſtate of the patient, mentioned in a former Review*, previous to her taking the Nightſhade.—Mr. Bromfield is thence of opinion, that the caſe was not properly cancerous.

The preface is followed by an introduction, conſiſting of ſome obſervations upon the general nature of deobſtruents; in relation to which, Mr. Bromfield obſerves, that he is "thoroughly convinced that "no one ſecretion in the animal body can compenſate for the defects "of any other." We muſt preſume, that our Author means here only *natural* ſecretions; for his title, and the ſubſequent part of his performance, ſufficiently manifeſt that one *artificially promoted* ſecretion may be uſefully ſubſtituted in the room of another. Nor muſt we forget to mention, that to this introduction is added, the characters and virtues of the ſeveral ſorts of Engliſh Nightſhade, given, in purſuance of Mr. Bromfield's deſire, by Dr. Hill; and to prevent any miſtake in the kinds, the ſame gentleman has given a deſcriptive plate of the ſeveral ſpecies of Nightſhade, engraved with his own hand.

Theſe preliminaries are ſucceeded by the relation of ten caſes, that fell under our Author's immediate cognizance; and of four others, that were communicated to him by gentlemen of the Faculty; in all which, the Nightſhades were tried, and were ſo far from evincing any uſeful or ſanative qualities, that they were generally attended with troubleſome and dangerous conſequences: nor have theſe medicines,

* See vol. XVI, page 147.

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according to Mr. Bromfield's information, met with better ſucceſs in the numerous trials that have been made of them in the ſeveral hoſpitals, except in one inſtance which occurred at the London-hoſpital.

The effects of theſe plants are thus enumerated by our Author. 'They ſometimes occaſioned ſweats; other patients they purged and 'vomited exceſſively, even to the throwing up of blood, but did not 'often increaſe the urine, as I found by aſcertaining the quantity ſe-'creted before the medicine was given, and after taking it; in ſeveral 'it occaſioned either *nauſea*, loſs of appetite, *ſtupor*, head-ach, giddi-'neſs, dimneſs of ſight, difficulty of ſwallowing and breathing, ſwel-'ling of the abdomen, numbneſs of the extremeties, and other para-'lytic ſymptoms.

'In ſeveral it gave great pain in the ſores, or other parts affected, 'ſoon after taking it; in others it gave ulcers a diſpoſition to ſpread; 'ſome it made feveriſh; it frequently occaſioned coſtiveneſs, and in-'terrupted the ſecretion of urine: theſe laſt effects were plainly ow-'ing to heat or ſpaſms. I would not urge matters too far, but it 'has certainly proved a poiſon to one under my own inſpection, 'though the doſes of the *garden Nightſhade* did not exceed one grain 'at a time. I am informed, an infuſion of the *ſolanum lethale* has 'haſtened the deaths of more than one by the late experiments. The 'infuſion of both plants have been frequently given, without any ſen-'ſible effect on the perſons who took them, though the quantity was 'increaſed at proper diſtances as far as prudence would juſtify: others, 'whoſe expectations were raiſed from the character of the medicine, 'thought themſelves better at firſt, on taking it; though it had not 'any effect on the ordinary evacuations of the body; but as the firſt 'tranſport paſſed away, the maladies returned in their full force. The 'eyes were frequently affected by the uſe of the medicine; in ſome 'patients but lightly, in others the attacks were more violent, and con-'tinued ſo long as to become very alarming: in two inſtances, the in-'jury done to the eyes has hitherto reſiſted the power of remedies, 'though of ſome months ſtanding.'—From hence our Author is in-duced to believe, that 'moſt of the gentlemen of the faculty will want 'reſolution to perſevere, in the uſe of this plant, till they are informed 'how it may be adminiſtered with more efficacy, and greater ſafety, 'as a medicine.'

How widely Mr. Gataker and Mr. Bromfield differ in their opi-nion of theſe plants, is ſufficiently evident from the foregoing review of their reſpective publications. The acknowleged candor of both precludes every ſuſpicion, that either the one has en-deavoured to palliate, or the other to exaggerate, the inconveniences that have occurred in their ſeveral experiments. Whether the obſerva-tions of the latter ought to prohibit any further trials of the Night-ſhades, we ſhall not take upon us to determine; nor ſhall we enter into a particular diſcuſſion of the reſtitude of our Author's ſentiments, concerning the analogy between theſe and other vegetable poiſons, and their manner of acting on the human body: but ſurely they are controvertible.

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In the recital of the above-mentioned caſes, notice having been taken of ſome advantages derived from a decoction of ſarſaparilla, Mr. Bromfield proceeds to give his thoughts more explicitly on the efficacy of this newly revived medicine. Whatever repute it may be in with ſome, as a ſpecific for the *Lues Venerea*, he aſſerts, that he never ſaw a ſingle inſtance where it cured that diſorder without the interpoſition of Mercury, either given at the time with it, or when Mercury had been taken previouſly to it. He admits its utility after a mercurial courſe, ſeeing the return of nocturnal pains, and other ſymptoms, has frequently induced the patient to think himſelf not cured: which ſymptoms have diſappeared, on taking a decoction of this root, or of ſome of the woods, without a ſingle grain more of Mercury.

The juſtice of this remark will hardly be impeached by any unprejudiced practitioners; no more, we apprehend, can his aſſerting, that the ſolution of corroſive ſublimate (another old preparation likewiſe newly brought into faſhion) is not poſſeſſed of any more ſpecific qualities, nor liable to fewer inconveniences, than any other mercurial preparation; eſpecially in venereal complaints, where the whole maſs of blood is contaminated.---Our Author is alſo moſt probably right in his diſtinction between a chancre got by contact, and one conſequential of virus in the blood. The former will frequently yield to external, and not very painful, applications; the latter cannot be conquered without a ſtricter regimen.

Mr. Bromfield's obſervations on Mercury when crude, and after it has undergone chemical torture, appear judicious, and promiſe to be of uſe. In particular, we heartily concur with him, 'that mercurials 'which act by their ſpicula, [ſuch are all preparations of it by fire] 'when taken by the mouth, where tumours are greatly indurated, 'and long obſtructed, almoſt always irritate and increaſe their ſize, 'or elſe, by inflaming, ſuppurate them. In ſimilar caſes, where 'emollient ointments, blended with Mercury, are for ſome time rub-'bed into the part affected, previous to the adminiſtration of mercurial 'preparations internally, they ſeldom fail of ſucceſs, without the 'formation of matter; provided we are not too much in a hurry.'

The pouring down large quantities of crude Mercury, in order to obtain a paſſage in the *iliac paſſion*, after ſtrong cathartics have been ineffectually given, is deſervedly cenſured by our Author; but with regard to expecting relief in this complaint, by adminiſtring 'oil in a 'large quantity, mixed with a lenient cathartic', it may admit of ſome doubt. This diſorder is generally ſpaſmodic, and proceeds from inflammation: as ſuch, the firſt indications ſeem to be, to abate the latter by repeated veneſection, and to appeaſe the former by prudently exhibited opiates. This at leaſt is certain, that till the ſpaſms are quieted, the ſtomach will reject even the moſt inoffenſive things offered to it; much leſs will it be able to bear large quantities of oil.--- The ſtricture thus releaſed, gentle ſolutives, gradually adminiſtered, ſeldom fail of producing the deſired effect.

The principal argument here offered for ſubſtituting, in the cure of venereal complaints, the ſecretion of urine inſtead of that by the ſaliva-

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val glands, is as follows. 'Mercury will make its way through the 'different emunctories of the body, in different ſubjects; and if the 'capacities of the excretory tubes are ſufficiently large to permit the 'peccant matter to paſs off from the blood, it is quite immaterial 'whether it is effected by the ſalivary glands, the ſkin, or the kid-'neys.' Here again, had we leiſure, Mr. Broomfield's hypotheſis might be call'd in queſtion: — However, it is but juſtice to obſerve, that many of this gentleman's hints may be found ſerviceable.

RELIGIOUS *and* CONTROVERSIAL.

Art. 35. *An Addreſs to his Majeſty, upon the preſent Criſis.* 8vo 1 s. Woodgate.

The Author pathetically laments the depravity of the times, and humbly intimates, that much lies in his Majeſty's power towards reforming them; rightly conceiving, no doubt, that a great deal may be done by the influence of *good example:* eſpecially in perſons of ſuch exalted character.

Art. 36. *A ſecond Solemn Call on Mr. Zinzendorf, otherwiſe called Count Zinzendorf, &c. By the late* Henry Rimius, *Eſq;* 8vo. 2 s. Linde.

It appears from this, as well as from former evidences, that the Moravians are the moſt ridiculous, obſcene, and deteſtible of all enthuſiaſts. It is impoſſible for the mildeſt, and moſt charitable Reader, not tinctured with the ſame abominations, to peruſe the accounts of them, publiſhed by the late Mr. Rimius, and other creditable witneſſes, without being fired with an honeſt indignation; which no man truly zealous for the honour of Chriſtianity need be aſhamed of, or think inconſiſtent with that meekneſs of the goſpel ſpirit which, on proper occaſions, is juſtified in *ſharply rebuking* ſuch groſs offenders. *Paul to Titus,* Ch. i. v. 13.

Art. 37. *Moſes brought to the Teſt; or, the Crown fairly won, and ſet upon the right Head. Being a conteſt between the Law and the Goſpel; in a friendly dialogue between a Chriſtian, a Miniſter, and Moſes. By a Friend of Moſes, and Servant of Jeſus Chriſt.* 12mo. 6 d. Lewis.

Moſes is here brought upon the ſtage for the ſame purpoſe that boys, in the country, ſet up a cock on Shrove-Tueſday, purpoſely to knock him down. Accordingly, though the Jewiſh law-giver is a little obſtinate and refractory at firſt, yet he is ſoon overcome. We cannot, however, think he had fair play, as the title-page would make us believe; for two to one is an unfair advantage:—his antagoniſts would have gained a more honourable victory, had Aaron been introduced as Moſes's ſecond, to have made the contending parties equal in number.

Art. 38. *The Touchſtone of Saving Faith; or, a plain and brief anſwer to the two following queſtions: Q. 1. How far may a perſon's*

perſon's heart and ways be rectified, and he notwithſtanding be deſtitute of Saving Faith? Q. 2. How ſhall we know whether our faith be ſaving, amidſt all the weakneſſes and doubts that may attend it? By Samuel Pike. 8vo. 6d. Buckland, &c.

The great founder of our religion has declared his yoke to be eaſy, and his burden light: but if, inſtead of taking his doctrine from his own mouth, we receive it after it has been repeatedly brewed in the heated imaginations of men who profeſſedly diſcard common reaſon; inſtead of a religion, beautiful for its ſimplicity, we have only a complication of paradoxes.

The main ſcope of this Touchſtone ſeems levelled againſt the criterion of goodneſs pointed out by Chriſt, in that inimitable compariſon —*Every good tree bringeth forth good fruit; but a corrupt tree bringeth forth evil fruit.*—Mr. Pike, however, labours hard to prove, that a man may have in himſelf all the evidences of Chriſtianity, without being a Chriſtian. But, ſetting aſide the abſurdity of his confuſed reaſonings—is it not barbarous to caſt ſtumbling-blocks in the way of travellers? Yet this is no new practice; for it was ſaid almoſt two thouſand years ago—*Wo unto you Scribes and Phariſees hypocrites; for ye ſhut up the kingdom of Heaven againſt men: for ye neither go in yourſelves, neither ſuffer ye them that are entering, to go in.*

Art. 39. *The Family Preacher. Conſiſting of practical diſcourſe for every Sunday throughout the year; as alſo for Chriſtmas-day, Good-friday, Eaſter-day, &c. &c.* By D. Bellamy, *Chaplain of Peterſham and Kew, in Surry, and Vicar of St. Stephen, in St. Alban's, Herefordſhire.* 8vo. 2 vols. 10 s. Baldwin.

Mr. Bellamy has enhanced the credit which this collection muſt derive from his own name, by adding thoſe of the truly Reverend Dr. Stephen Hales, the late Reverend Mr. Stephen Duck, the Reverend Mr. James Carrington, Prebendary of Exeter, and the Reverend Dr. Webſter of Ware; who have all contributed towards enabling our Family Preacher to make a decent appearance on Sundays and Holidays, in a ſightly pair of volumes.

We are willing to ſuppoſe every publication of this ſort perfectly well intended in the main; but the above-mentioned peculiar conjunction of names and characters not entirely homogeneal, puts us in mind of the following paſſage in Martial; which we recommend to Mr. Bellamy's conſideration: at the ſame time begging that Reverend Gentleman's pardon for ſuch an abrupt tranſition from ſo ſerious a ſubject.

——*Scelus eſt jugulare ſalernum,*
Et dare campano toxica ſæva mero.

N. B. The Remainder of this Month's Catalogue, together with the Single Sermons publiſhed ſince October, will be given in our *Appendix*; which our Readers may expect about the Middle of next Month.

AN APPENDIX TO THE MONTHLY REVIEW,

VOLUME the SEVENTEENTH.

Biographia Britannica: or, the Lives of the moſt eminent Perſons who have flouriſhed in Great Britain and Ireland, from the earlieſt ages down to the preſent times: collected from the beſt authorities, both printed and manuſcript, and digeſted in the manner of Mr. Bayle's Hiſtorical and Critical Dictionary. Vol. IV. 1 l. 10 s. in ſheets. Meadows, Whitridge, &c.

THE advantages ariſing from the ſtudy of hiſtory in general, have been ſo often and ſo amply diſcuſſed, that any preſent enlargement on the ſubject would be not only uſeleſs but impertinent: nor is it more neceſſary to enumerate the particular benefits that naturally reſult from contemplating the actions of individuals, who have rendered themſelves eminent in their lives, or remarkable in their deaths. The memory of good and great men has been reſpected in all ages, and their examples have been tranſmitted to poſterity, as well for the improvement of their ſucceſſors, as in juſtice to the illuſtrious dead. That Britain has produced many ſhining examples, worthy of being continued in remembrance, and highly deſerving the imitation, more eſpecially, of Britons, will not be denied: nevertheleſs, in the accounts of them handed down to us, many of the moſt diſtinguiſhed characters have been ſo far exalted by unmerited panegyric, or obſcured by invidious cenſure, that it has been hi-

therto very difficult, if not impoſſible, to obtain a due conception of them. With reſpect to the greater part of the compilers of private memoirs, and the writers of ſecret hiſtory, they ought (as an eminent Author of the laſt century juſtly obſerves) to be conſidered, as 'not hiſtorians of an action, but lawyers of a 'party;—they are retained by their principles, and bribed by 'their intereſts. Their narrations are an opening of their cauſe, 'and in the front of their hiſtories, there ought to be written 'the prologue of a pleading, *I am for the plaintiff*; or, *I am* '*for the defendant* *.'

To reſcue, therefore, the characters of the Great and the Worthy, from miſrepreſentation; to place their actions in a proper point of light; to determine the ſhare of merit or demerit due to each; appears to be one intention of this work:—a plan highly deſerving the attention and encouragement of the public, and of the utmoſt importance to thoſe who wiſh to be truly acquainted with the tranſactions of paſt ages; which can by no means be ſo well elucidated, as by the perſonal hiſtories of the principal actors in thoſe tranſactions.

The undertaking was bold and arduous, but the undertakers ſeem not unequal to it. That they have not been negligent in collecting, or injudicious in the choice of, materials for this purpoſe, is evident from the numerous marginal references interſperſed through their work. Their critical remarks are generally ſolid and inſtructive, and wherever they have differed from other Writers, they appear, for the moſt part, to have proceeded upon ſubſtantial grounds. But having ſaid thus much in favour of this undertaking, that impartiality we owe our Readers obliges us to obſerve, that the execution is not equally perfect in all its parts. However, it ought to be remembered, that it is the produce of many hands, all of whom might not, perhaps, be poſſeſſed of the ſame conveniences: nor ſhould this ſlight mention of ſome imperfections be thought a deſigned reflection upon the whole; ſeeing even ill nature will be forced to confeſs this to be the beſt work of the kind, that the Public either yet have, or are likely to obtain, and which, even with its defects, will always do honour to our country, as well as to the compilers.

According to the propoſals, it is ſaid, this work will be comprized in five volumes: a circumſtance we mention with ſome regret, as in the fourth they have gone no farther than the letter K: and ſurely under the remaining letters many more illuſtrious names will occur lives than can be juſtly comprehended in one

* Dryden, in his dedication to the Duke of Ormond, prefixed to the Tranſlation of Plutarch's Lives.

other

other volumes,—especially if they are treated with the same exactness as those already exhibited.

As the three first volumes of this work were published before the existence of our Review *, it may possibly be thought, that it does not properly fall within our notice: to such be this our apology, that the present appearance of this fourth volume gave us a pleasing opportunity of paying a due tribute of respect to this 'BRITISH TEMPLE OF HONOUR, sacred to the piety, learning, valour, public-spirit, loyalty, and every other glorious virtue of our ancestors, and ready for the reception of the WORTHIES of our OWN TIME, and the HEROES of POSTERITY.'

As a specimen of this work we shall select the life of the celebrated Mr. John Gay, not as one of the most important, or best written, but on account of the moderate bounds in which it is comprized; as best agreeing with the limits of the Review, as well as the general taste of the Public: poetry being the most universal of all subjects, and poets the favourite authors with almost every class of readers.

* They were published in the year 1747.

'GAY, [JOHN] an excellent poet, was born in the year 1688, at or near Barnstaple (*a*), in Devonshire, and educated at the free-school there, under a master (*b*) who was well qualified to give him a just taste of classical learning. Being descended of an antient family [*A*], whose estate was greatly impaired (*c*), his friends thought proper to place him in a way of improving his fortune by trade. In this design he was put apprentice to a silk-mercer in London. But that station not suiting his liberal spirit, he began to shew his disgust to a shop, almost from his first entrance therein, and giving little atten-

(*a*) See Ayre's life of Pope, Vol. II p. 96.

(*b*) Mr. William Rayner, who had been bred at Westminster-school, and taught in that method. Gen. Dict. Article, GAY.

[*A*] *Descended of an antient family.*] Mr. Risdon (1) observes, that Gilbert le Gay, who gave name to the family, was settled at a place called Hampton-Gay, in Oxfordshire, and that by a match with the daughter and heir of the family of Curtoyse, or Curtis, he came into the possession of the lordship of Goldworthy, in Devonshire, which was the antient dwelling of the name of Gay for many descents.

(1) In his survey of Devonshire, Vol. I. 8vo. p. 80.

(*c*) Our Author himself declares,

He never had been blest by fortune's hand,
Nor brightned plowshares in paternal land. *Rural Sports.*

'dance, and leſs attention, to the buſineſs, he procured a re-
'leaſe upon eaſy terms, and in a few years took a final leave
'of his maſter (*d*). Having thus honourably got free from an
'ill-brooked reſtraint, he followed the bent of his genius, and
'it was not long before he gave the Public ſome admirable proofs
'of the character for which he was formed by nature (*e*) [*B*].
'Theſe firſt ſpecimens of his poetical talents, added to the ſweet-
'neſs of his temper, and an almoſt unexampled ſimplicity of
'manners, immediately procured him the eſteem and affection
'of ſeveral of his brother Poets, and particularly endeared him
'to Mr. Pope, who was of the ſame age with him. In the ſo-
'ciety of ſuch friends he paſſed a few years, cultivating his muſe
'in that kind of improvident indolence and independency (*f*),
'which only could make him perfectly happy. But his taſte of
'life being too elegant for his fortune, he gladly accepted an
'offer made to him in 1712, of living with the Dutcheſs of

(*d*) See his life, p. 3. printed in 1733, 8vo. and *Ayre ubi ſupra.* Theſe authorities are judged ſufficient for a fact not improbable in itſelf, is no diſcredit to our Author, and has never, that we know of, been queſtioned.

(*e*) In his epiſtle to Mr. Methuen, we find him complaining in theſe terms:

But now that wight in poverty muſt mourn,
Who was, (O cruel ſtars!) a Poet born.

In the 2d vol. of his Poems.

(*f*) Dr. Swift obſerves, that Providence never deſigned him to be above two and twenty, by his thoughtleſneſs and cullibility. Letter 33. in Pope's works, vol. 9. edit. 1742.

[*B*] *Some proofs of the character for which he was formed by nature.*] The principal of theſe is his Rural Sports, a Georgic. The poem is addreſſed to Mr. Pope, who, in a letter to Mr. Cromwell, dated Dec. 7. 1711 (2), having acknowleged the favour, takes notice of a play that our Author had then upon the ſtocks, alluding, doubtleſs, to his comedy called, *The Wife of Bath*, which was acted in 1714 at the Theatre in Lincoln's-Inn Fields, but with no ſucceſs. It was then printed in 4to. He reviſed and altered it in 1729, when it was brought again upon the ſame ſtage, and met with the ſame bad reception. Dean Swift had no opinion of this ſecond attempt, though Mr. Pope had. "I had never," (ſays the Dean to Mr. Gay) (3) much hopes of your "vamped play, although Mr. Pope ſeemed to have, and although it "were ever ſo good. But you ſhould have done like the parſons, "and changed your text; I mean the title and the names of the "perſons. After all, it was an effect of idleneſs, for you are in the "prime of life, when invention and judgment go together."

(2) In the eighth volume of Pope's works.

(3) In his letter dated March 19, 1729. Pope's Works, Vol. 9.

Monmouth, as her ſecretary [*C*]. This ſituation ſet him at full leiſure to indulge his poetic vein (*g*), and a remarkable incident [*D*], the following year, furniſhed him with an op-

[*C*] *Secretary to the Dutcheſs of Monmouth.*] This place furniſhed ſome recruits which were very ſeaſonable. Mr. Gay's purſe was an unerring barometer of his ſpirits, and when theſe ran low, (though talkativeneſs was far from being his foible) the continual dread of a ſervile dependence filled his mouth too full of complaints. The Dean, as his manner was, deals very plainly with him on this head. "I never charged you," ſays he, (4) "for not talking, but the dubious ſtate "of your affairs in thoſe days, was too much the ſubject." This may ſerve as a fit contraſt to the delicacy with which Mr. Pope touches the ſame ſtring, on the preſent occaſion. After many congratulations, he concludes (5) his letter thus: "I ſhall ſee you this winter with "much greater pleaſure than I could the laſt, and I hope ſo much of "your time, as your attendance on the Dutcheſs will allow you to "ſpare to any friend, will not be thought loſt to one who is as "much ſo as any man. I muſt alſo put you in mind, though you "are ſecretary to this lady, that you are ſecretary to nine other ladies, "and are to write ſometimes for them too. *He who is forced to live "wholly upon thoſe ladies favours, is, indeed, in as precarious a condition, as any He who does what Chaucer ſays for ſuſtenence*; but they "are very agreeable companions, like other ladies, when a man only "paſſes a night or ſo with them at his leiſure, and away."

(4) In a letter of Nov. 19. 1732. Pope's works, vol. 9.
(5) It is dated Dec. 24, 1712, Ibid. vol. 8.

(*g*) His celebrated poem *Trivia*, was wrote about this time.

[*D*] *A remarkable incident*] It was an affront which had been lately put upon Mr. Pope, by his great rival in paſtoral poetry, Mr. Phillips: of this we have the following account, in a letter of Mr. Pope's, to Mr. Cragg's, dated June 8, 1714 (6). "The queſtion you aſk, in "relation to Mr. Addiſon and Phillips, I ſhall anſwer in a few words. "Mr. Phillips did expreſs himſelf with much indignation againſt me "one evening at Burton's coffee-houſe (as I was told), ſaying, that "I was entered into a cabal with Dean Swift, and others, to write "againſt the Whig intereſt, and in particular to undermine his own "reputation, and that of his friends, Steele and Addiſon. But Mr. "Phillips never opened his lips to my face on this or any other like "occaſion, though I was almoſt every night in the ſame room with "him, nor ever offered me any indecorum." He then proceeds to relate Mr. Addiſon's, and Lord Hallifax's kindneſs to him, in procuring ſubſcriptions to his tranſlation of Homer's Iliad, and goes on thus: "However Phillips did all he could ſecretly to continue the report "with the Hanover club, and kept in his hands the ſubſcriptions paid "for me to him, as ſecretary to that club.'—*It is to this management "of Phillips, that the world owes Mr. Gay's Paſtorals.*"

(6) Ibid. vol. 7.

'portunity of making it particularly ſerviceable to his friend 'Mr. Pope. In this ſpirit he compoſed his *Shepherd's Week* [*E*], 'and

[*E*] *Shepherd's Week.*] As there cannot be an inſtance given of greater friendſhip in an Author, than is this undertaking by Mr. Gay; ſo nothing could be ſweeter than the ſucceſs of it to Mr. Pope: for although his paſtorals were allowed to excel in the Arcadian ſtile, yet thoſe of his rival [Phillips], formed upon Spencer's plan, had carried the prize; a true rural ſimplicity being generally eſteemed the proper characteriſtic of the paſtoral poem; but this rival had the mortification to ſee his garland blaſted, at the appearance of Mr. Gay's piece, which being found ſtill more exquiſitely pure in that taſte, obtained far the loudeſt applauſe. Our Author, in the proem, marks the defect of his predeceſſor, and in doing it, gives a notable proof of his own perfection. "Great marvel," ſays he, "hath it been, (and that not unworthily) "to divers worthy wits, that in this our iſland of Britain, in all rare "ſciences ſo greatly abounding, more eſpecially in all kinds of poeſy "highly flouriſhing, no poet, though otherwiſe of notable cunning "in roundelays, hath hit on the right ſimple eclogue after the true "antient guiſe of Theocritus, before this mine attempt.—Certes ſuch "it behoveth a paſtoral to be, as nature in the country affordeth, and "the manner alſo meetly copied from the ruſtical folk therein.' The following ſpecimen will ſhew how perfectly he has executed this plan. It is the conteſt among the lovers for the prize of beauty to their reſpective miſtreſſes.

Lobbin Clout,

My Blouzalinda is the blitheſt laſs!
Than primroſe ſweeter, or the clover graſs,
Fair is the king-cup that in meadow blows,
Fair is the daiſy that beſide her grows,
Fair is the gilliflower, of gardens ſweet,
Fair is the marygold, for pottage meet;
But Blouzalind's than gilliflow'r more fair,
Than daiſy, marygold, or king-cup, rare.

Cuddy.

My brown Buxoma is the feateſt maid
That e'er at wake delightſome gambol play'd.
Clean as young lambkins, or the gooſe's down,
And like the goldfinch in her Sunday gown;
The witleſs lamb may ſport upon the plain,
The friſking kid delight the gaping ſwain,
The wanton calf may ſkip with many a bound,
And my cur, Tray, play deſteſt feats around;
But neither lamb, nor kid, nor calf, nor Tray,
Dance like Buxoma on the firſt of May.

Lobbin Clout.

Sweet is my toil, when Blouzalind is near,
Of her bereft, 'tis winter all the year;

With

'and printed it with a dedication to Lord Bolingbroke (*b*), in '1714. The ſame year he reſigned his poſt to the Dutcheſs, be-'ing appointed to attend the Earl of Clarendon in the like charac-'ter on an embaſſy from Queen Anne to the court of Hanover [*F*].

'The

With her no ſullry ſummer's heat I know;
In winter, when ſhe's nigh, with love I glow;
Come, Blouzalinda, eaſe thy ſwain's deſire,
My ſummer's ſhadow, and my winter's fire.

The following lines from Mr. Phillips on the like conteſt, being ſet in this place, will bring the difference into full light.

Mild as a lamb, and harmleſs as a dove,
True as the turtle, is the maid I love;
How we in ſecret love I ſhall not ſay,
Divine her name, and I give up the day.

By this ſpecimen we ſee, that even in ſome places where this poet cannot be charged with want of ſimplicity, though the character of the country is retained, yet it is evident, the true manner of the *ruſtical folk* therein is not *meetly* copied. In the former, every thing is not only in character, but beautifully ſo. Thus Vandyke painted, ever copying nature with the moſt religious exactneſs, and ever ſhewing it beautiful. In the dedication, Mr. Gay thus deſcribes his own dreſs at that time, when he was waiting for court favours.

I ſold my ſheep and lambkins too,
For ſilver loops and garment blue, &c.

Mr. Pope took an opportunity of touching upon this vanity in a very humorous letter to the Dean (7), who had with equal humour offered him twenty guineas to turn Proteſtant. This the former propoſes to do upon a ſubſcription proportionable to that of the Dean, but with certain conditions, one of which is, that a ſufficient ſum be advanced, to purchaſe (according to the practice of the Romiſh church) the ſalvation of the ſouls of ſome of his friends, among whom he reckons Mr. Gay.—"There is one," ſays he, "who will "die within theſe few months, with one Jarvis, who hath grievouſly "offended, in making the likeneſs of almoſt all things, in heaven "above, and earth below; and one Mr. Gay, an unhappy youth, "who writes paſtorals during the time of divine ſervice, *whoſe caſe "is the more deplorable, as he hath miſerably laviſhed away all that "ſilver he ſhould have reſerved for his ſoul's health, in buttons and "loops for his coat.*"

(7) Dated Dec. 8, 1713, and inſerted in Lord Orrery's account of Swift. Lett. 5.

(*b*) The Dean, in 1722, calls this dedication Mr. Gay's original ſin againſt the court. Pope's works, ibid. letter 6.

[*F*] *An embaſſy to the court of Hanover.*] The occaſion of this embaſſy was, the demand that had been made by Baron Schutz, Envoy-Extraordinary from the Elector of Hanover, of a writ for ſum-

' The Queen's death put an end to all his towering hopes; ' however, upon his return home ſoon after, under the weight ' of that misfortune, he was received with the warmeſt welcome ' by his never-failing friend above mentioned, who adviſed him ' withal to puſh the advantage which his laſt employ had given ' him of being perſonally known to the new Sovereign, and his ' family [*G*]. Accordingly he took the opportunity of mak-

moning the elector Prince, his preſent Majeſty, to ſit in the Houſe of Lords, as Duke of Cambridge.

[*G*] *Mr. Pope received him with the warmeſt welcome, and adviſed him to puſh the advantage, &c.*] This letter is dated Sept. 23, 1714 (9), and begins thus: " Dear Mr. Gay, welcome to your na- " tive ſoil, welcome to your friends, thrice welcome to me! whe- " ther returned in glory, bleſſed with court-intereſt, the love and " familiarity of the great, and filled with agreeable hopes, or melan- " choly with dejection, contemplative of the change of fortune, and " doubtful for the future; whether returned a triumphant Whig, or " deſponding Tory, equally all hail! equally beloved and welcome " to me.—I know you will be an honeſt man, and an inoffenſive one; " —incapable of being ſo much of either party, as to be good for " nothing. Therefore, once more, whatever you are, or in what- " ſoever ſtate you are, all hail!" After apologizing for not having written to Mr. Gay while abroad, on account of the taſk he had ſet himſelf in carrying on the tranſlation of Homer, which was now fi- niſhed, he continues in the ſame vein as before. " Rejoice with me, " O my friend, that my labour is over; come and make merry with " me in much feaſting. We will feed among the lillies (10.) (by the " lillies I mean the ladies). Are not the Roſalindas of Britain as " charming as the Blouzalindas of the Hague? Or, have the two " great paſtoral poets of our nation renounced love at the ſame time? " For Phillips, immortal Phillips! hath deſerted, yea, and in a " ruſtic manner, kicked his Roſalind." Mr. Pope writes this letter from Bath, whither giving his friend this hearty invitation, " Talk " not of expences, Homer ſhall ſupport his children." He concludes thus: " Pardon me if I add a word of advice in the poetical way. " Write ſomething on the King, or Prince, or Princeſs. On what- " ſoever foot you may be with the court, this can do no harm."

(9) It is in the eighth volume of Mr. Pope's works.

(10.) This may, perhaps, allude to the following lines in Phil- lips's paſtorals.

Breath ſoft, ye winds, ye waters gently flow,
Shield her, ye trees, ye flow'rs around her grow.
Ye ſwains, I beg you paſs in ſilence by,
My love, in yonder vale, aſleep does lie.

Compare theſe with Canticles, ch. xi. 5. In this view Mr. Pope's tranſition is beautiful.

' ing

'ing his court to the Princeſs of Wales (*i*), (afterwards Queen 'Caroline) on the arrival of her Royal Highneſs in England 'ſhortly after (*k*). This compliment was well received, and 'our Author's farce, entitled, *The What d' ye call it*, being 'brought upon the [*H*] ſtage before the end of the ſeaſon, 'both

(*i*) See his Epiſtle to a Lady, occaſioned by the arrival of her Royal Highneſs the Princeſs of Wales.

(*k*) She arrived with the two eldeſt Princeſſes, Oct. 13, 1714, and Mr. Pope's advice is dated Sept. 23.

[*H*] *What d' y' call it was brought upon the ſtage.*] He called it a tragi-comi-paſtoral farce. It has been always eſteemed a maſterpiece of our Author, and the tide of party, which ran extremely high at this time, threw out many curious remarks upon it, to his no ſmall diverſion, as is ſeen in ſome letters to Mr. Congreve. In one of which, dated March 19, 1714-15 (11), he writes thus: "The farce "of the What d' y' call it has occaſioned many different ſpeculations "in the town, ſome looking upon it as a meer jeſt upon the tragic "poets, others as a ſatire upon the late war; Mr. Cromwell hearing "none of the words †, and ſeeing the action to be tragical, was "much aſtoniſhed to ſee the audience laugh, and ſays the Prince and "Princeſs muſt doubtleſs be under no ſmall amazement on the ſame "account. Several Templars, and others of the more vociferous "kind of critics, went with a reſolution to hiſs, and confeſſed they "were forced to laugh ſo much, that they forgot the deſign they "came with. The court in general has in a very particular manner come into the jeſt, and the three firſt nights, (notwithſtanding two of "them were court-nights) were diſtinguiſhed by very full audiences "of the firſt quality. The common people of the pit and gallery "received it at firſt with great gravity and ſedateneſs, ſome few with "tears; but after the third day, they alſo took the hint, and have "ever ſince been very loud in their claps. There are ſtill ſome ſober "men, who cannot be of the general opinion; but the laughers are "ſo much the majority, that one or two critics ſeem determined to "undeceive the town at their proper coſt, by writing grave diſſertations againſt it. To encourage them in this laudable deſign, it is "reſolved, a preface ſhall be prefixed to the farce, in vindication of "the nature and dignity of this new way of writing (12)." Accordingly there came out ſoon after, *A compleat Key to the What d' ye call it*, which was written by one Griffin, a player, aſſiſted by Lewis Theobald. Upon this Mr. Gay, in a letter to Mr. Congreve, dated April 7, 1715 (13), makes the following remarks: "There is a ſix-"penny pamphlet lately publiſhed upon the tragedy of the *What d'ye*

(11) In Pope's works, vol. 8.

† By reaſon of his deafneſs.

(12) This was executed with incomparable humour.

(13) Pope's works, *ubi ſupra.*

"*call*

'both their Royal Highneſſes honoured it with their pre-
'ſence. The very kind reception he met with from perſons
'of the firſt diſtinction at this time, filled him with the fond
'hopes of more ſubſtantial favours [*I*]; and the failure of theſe

'(*l*) made

" *call it*, wherein he with much judgment and learning calls me a
" a blockhead, and Mr. Pope a knave. His grand charge is againſt
" the Pilgrim's Progreſs (14), which he ſays is directly levelled at
" Cato's reading Plato. To back this cenſure, he goes on to tell
" you, that the pilgrim's being mentioned to be the eighth edition,
" makes the reflection evident, the tragedy of Cato having juſt eight
" times (as he quaintly expreſſes it) viſited the preſs. He has alſo
" endeavoured to ſhew, that every particular paſſage of the play leads
" to ſome fine part of that tragedy, which he ſays I have injudici-
" ouſly and profoundly abuſed." The *Whit d' ye call it* (15) was alſo attacked by Mr. (afterwards Judge) Burnet, in one of his papers called *The Grumbler*.

(14) This humour in the character of Timothy Peaſcod was imitated in a poem called *The Horn-book*, publiſhed in 1733.

(15) Mr. Gay publiſhed another farce, called *The Mohocks*, but it was never acted.

[*I*] *Filled him with the hopes of more ſubſtantial favours.*] It was in this flow of ſpirits that the *Three Hours after Marriage* was brought upon the ſtage, and he bore the ill ſucceſs (16) of it very manfully, as is evident from the following letter (17). " Dear Pope, too late
" I ſee and confeſs myſelf miſtaken in relation to the comedy; yet I
" do not think, had I followed your advice, and only introduced the
" mummy, that the abſence of the crocodile (18) had ſaved it.
" I cannot help laughing myſelf (though the vulgar do not conſider
" that it was deſigned to look very ridiculous) to think, how the poor
" monſter and mummy were daſhed at their reception; and when the
" cry was loudeſt, that if the thing had been wrote by another, I
" ſhould have deemed the town in ſome meaſure miſtaken: and as
" to your apprehenſion, that this may do us any future injury, do not
" think it. The Doctor has a more valuable name than can be hurt
" by any thing of this nature, and your's is doubly ſafe. I will (if
" any ſhame there be) take it all to myſelf, as indeed I ought, the
" motion being firſt mine, and never heartily approved of by you.
" As to what your early enemy ſaid at the Duke of Dorſet's, and Mr.
" Pulteney's, you will live to prove him a falſe prophet, as you have
" already a liar, and a flatterer, and a poet in ſpight of nature. Whe-
" ther I ſhall do ſo or no, you can beſt tell, for with the continuance

(16) Mr. Cibber tells us it was very ill received, if not condemned, the firſt night. Lives of the Poets, Vol. 4. edit. 1753.

(17) In Pope's works, vol. 8.

(18) In this play, two lovers of a virtuoſo's wife, to gain acceſs to her, got themſelves ſent to the huſband as two rarities, in the forms of an Egyptian mummy and a crocodile.

" of

" (*l*) made too deep an impreſſion upon his tender nature, which " upon that account was but ill ſuited to the wavering ſtate of a " ſlender fortune. To divert this melancholy, Mr. Pulteney (*m*)

" of your dear friendſhip and aſſiſtance, never yet with-held from " me, I dare promiſe as much.

" I beg of you not to ſuffer this, or any thing elſe, to hurt your " health. As I have publicly ſaid, that I was aſſiſted by two friends " (19), I ſhall ſtill continue in the ſame ſtory, profeſſing obſtinate " ſilence about Dr. Arbuthnot and yourſelf. I am going to-morrow " to Hampton-court for a week, notwithſtanding the badneſs of the " weather; where, though I am to mix with quality, I ſhall ſee no- " thing half ſo engaging as you, my dear friend. I am (not at all " caſt down) your ſincere friend,

" JOHN GAY."

The ſatire of this play ſeems to be levelled at Dr. Woodward, in the character of Foſſile, which was admirably repreſented by the beſt comedian of that time in his ſtile of acting, Mr. Johnſon, as was that of Mrs. Foſſile by Mrs. Oldfield (20); but no advantage in the acting was able to ſupport it. How greatly Mr. Pope intereſted himſelf in its reception, we are informed by Mr. Cibber (21), who likewiſe tells us he had a fling at it in the character of Bays, when the Rehearſal was acted ſoon after. Thus upon the coming of the two Kings of Brentford, from the clouds, into the throne again, inſtead of what his part directed, he ſaid, *Now, Sir, this revolution I had ſome thoughts of introducing by a quite different contrivance; but my deſign taking air, ſome of your ſharp wits I found had made uſe of it before me; otherwiſe I intended to have ſtolen one of them in the ſhape of a mummy, and t'other in that of a crocodile.* This was ſo much reſented by Mr. Pope, that, after the play, coming behind the ſcenes in an extraordinary agitation of ſpirits, he fell upon the actor in very foul language; and Mr. Cibber's perſiſting in the ſame inſult ſeveral ſucceeding nights, is aſſigned by him for the firſt cauſe of Mr. Pope's perſecuting him with his pen ever afterwards.

(19) In a ſhort advertiſement prefixed to the play.

(20) It was acted at Drury-lane, in 1717.

(21) In his firſt letter to Mr. Pope, publiſhed in 1742.

(*l*) The Princeſs of Wales was delivered of a young Prince, Nov. 20, 1717; and Mr. Pope, in a letter dated the 8th of that month, gives him joy of this Prince, becauſe, ſays he, he is the only Prince from whom you have had no expectations and no diſappointment. See Pope's works, vol. 8.

(*m*) He was then out of favour at court, having reſigned his place of Secretary at War the April before. Salmon's Chronol. Hiſtorian. in the year 1717.

" took

'took our Author in company with him to Aix [*K*], in France, 'in the year 1717, and the following year he was invited by Lord 'Harcourt to his ſeat in Oxfordſhire [*L*]. In 1720 he pub-

'liſhed

[*K*] *He was taken by Mr. Pulteney to Aix.*] He had been entertained the year before with a viſit to his own country [Devonſhire] at the expence of the Earl of Burlington, and had repaid his Lordſhip with a humorous account of the journey (22). He made the ſame return for this ſucceeding favour of Mr. Pulteney. This jaunting about with ſome decent appointments, was one of the ſweeteſt pleaſures of his life, and never failed of provoking his muſe. However, Dr. Swift rallies the foible with his uſual kind ſeverity. "I wiſh," (ſays he to him in 1729) "you had a little villakin in his [Pope's] neighbour-"hood; but you are yet too volatile, and any Lady, with a coach "and ſix horſes, would carry you to Japan." The ſame foible comes again croſs the Dean's mind in 1732, when he writes thus to his friend. "I find, by the whole caſt of your letter, that you are as "giddy, and as volatile as ever, juſt the reverſe of Mr. Pope, who "hath always loved a domeſtic life from his youth. I was going to "wiſh you had ſome little place that you could call your own; but "I profeſs I do not know you well enough to contrive any one ſyſ-"tem of life that would pleaſe you. You pretend to preach up rid-"ing and walking to the Dutcheſs; yet, from my knowlege of you "after twenty years, you always joined a violent deſire of perpetually "ſhifting places and company, with a rooted lazineſs, and an utter "impatience of fatigue. A coach and ſix horſes is the utmoſt exer-"ciſe you can bear, and this only when you can fill it with ſuch "company as is beſt ſuited to your taſte (23).

(22) It is called, A Journey to Exeter, in an epiſtle to that Lord.

(23) Letter 49, and 57. in Pope's works, vol. 9, edit. 1742.

[*L*] *He went to Stanton-Harcourt, in Oxfordſhire.*] Here an unfortunate accident again engaged his muſe, jointly with Mr. Pope; of this he ſent an account to Mr. Elijah Fenton, in a letter (24), ſoon after it had happened. "The only news," ſays he, "that you can "expect to have from me here, is news from Heaven; for I am "quite out of the world, and there is ſcarce any thing can reach "me, except the noiſe of thunder." Upon that ſubject he proceeds (in contraſt to Horace) to acquaint his friend, that Blenheim ſtood untouched in the neighbourhood, while a cock of barley, in the next field to them, was conſumed to aſhes. "Would to God," continues he, "that this heap of barley had been all that had periſhed! for, un-"happily beneath this little ſhelter ſat two much more conſtant lovers "than ever were found in romance under the ſhade of a beech-tree. "John Hewett was a well-ſet man, of about five-and-twenty. Sarah "Drew might be rather called comely than beautiful, and was about "the ſame age. They had paſſed through the various labours of the

(24) It is dated Aug. 3, 1718; and the lightning fell the laſt day of July. Ibid. vol. 8.

"year

'lished his poems by subscription, with good success (*n*); but 'this was presently damped by the misfortune he had of being 'in-

"year together with the greatest satisfaction; if she milked, it was "his morning and evening care to bring the cows to her hand; it was "but last fair, that he bought her a present of green silk for her "straw hat, and the posy on her silver ring was of his chusing. "Their love was the talk of the whole neighbourhood; for scandal "never affirmed, that they had any other views than the lawful pos- "session of each other in marriage. It was that very morning, that "he had obtained the consent of her parents, and it was but till the "next week they were to wait to be happy. Perhaps in the inter- "vals of their work, they were now talking of their wedding-cloaths, "and John was suiting several sort of poppies and field-flowers to her "complection, to chuse her knot for the wedding-day. While they "were thus busied (it was on the last day of July, between two and "three in the afternoon) the clouds grew black, and such a storm of "lightning and thunder ensued, that all the labourers made the best "of their way to what shelter the trees and hedges afforded. Sarah "was frightned, and fell down in a swoon on a heap of barley; John, "who never separated from her, sat down by her, having raked to- "gether two or three heaps, the better to secure her from the storm. "Immediately there was heard so loud a crack, as if Heaven had split "asunder: every one was now solicitous for the safety of his neigh- "bour, and called to one another throughout the field. No answer "being returned to those who called to our lovers, they stepped to "the place where they lay; they perceived the barley all in a flame, "and then spied this faithful pair, John with one arm about Sarah's "neck, and the other held over her as to screen her from the light- "ning. They were struck dead, and stiffned in this tender posture. "Sarah's left eyebrow was singed, and there appeared a black spot "on her breast; her lover was all over black, but not the least signs "of life were found in either. Attended by their melancholy com- "panions, they were conveyed to the town, and the next day were "interred in Stanton-Harcourt church-yard. My Lord Harcourt, at "Mr. Pope's and my request, has caused a stone to be placed over "them, upon condition that we furnished the epitaph, which is as "follows:

When Eastern lovers feed the funeral fire,
On the same pile the faithful pair expire:
Here pitying Heav'n that virtue mutual found,
And blasted both, that it might neither wound.
Hearts so sincere th' Almighty saw well pleas'd,
Sent his own lightning, and the victims seiz'd.

It is thus our Poet entertained his friends, when he was properly himself, which ought to be remembered in reading the remark of a noble author (25), who, speaking of Mr. Gay's letters to Dr. Swift,

(25) Lord Orrery, in his account of the life and writings of Dr. Swift, Letter the 20th.

(*n*) See his epistle to Mr. Methuen, quoted above.

ob-

' involved in the general calamity which happened [*M*] that ' remarkable year. So that by degrees he fell into such an utter

obſerves, " they have nothing in them ſtriking, or commendatory, and " his ſentiments only thoſe of an honeſt, good-natur'd man:" it will preſently appear, that in that correſpondence we never ſee him but in an ill ſtate of health, and under ſome dejection of ſpirits; beſides, it is allowed he had an awful regard of the Dean as his father, it might have been ſaid, as his preceptor.

[*M*] *Involved in the calamities of that year.*] No body will be ſurpriſed, that a perſon of Mr. Gay's turn was caught in the alluring ſnare that was laid at this time by the projectors of the South-ſea ſcheme. He had the ill-luck to be poſſeſſed of as much original ſtock as ſwelled to the imaginary value of about ten thouſand pounds. Upon which Mr. Pope and Mr. Fenton, with others, not a little delighted with the proſpect of ſeeing their friend ſettled in an independent fortune, ſo indiſpenſibly neceſſary to ſupport his ſpirit in chearfulneſs, were very aſſiduous in urging him to ſell: he gave them an abſolute denial, and even treated the advice (as thouſands did at that time) with an air of diſdain. Then they endeavoured to prevail on him at leaſt to let as much ſtock go, as would raiſe wherewithal to purchaſe an annuity of one hundred pounds for his life; obſerving to him, that by this means he would be placed out of the reach of want, and be ſure *of a clean ſhirt and a ſhoulder of mutton every day* (26). It was further added, that this prudent ſtep was very conſiſtent with any higher views which might poſſibly ariſe, ſince the remainder was enough to give him ſtill a conſiderable hand in the play, of which he would alſo wait the event with much leſs anxiety, after this neceſſary proviſion; but all this preaching, however ſound the doctrine, was given to the winds. Their friend was ſeized with the general new ſpirit of prophecy of much greater things than they ſimply talked of, and all this while lived ſuitably to that proſpect; nor was this ſpirit quenched, but in the general inundation that preſently broke the charm, and ſtripped poor Gay even of the ſmall pittance of his original ſtock. This original ſtock ſeems to be the thouſand pounds, about the diſpoſal of which, we are told (27), our Author had a conſultation with his friends, when Mr. Lewis, Lord Oxford's ſteward, adviſed him to intruſt it to the funds, and live upon the intereſt; Dr. Arbuthnot, to intruſt it to Providence, and live upon the principal; and Mr. Pope was for purchaſing an annuity for life; *faciſtis probe*, ſays the author of this ſtory, *incertior ſum multo quam dudum* †. Dr. Swift, who was alſo for his buying an annuity, having received no

(26) That was the expreſſion of Mr. Fenton, from whom we had the account of this particular.

(27) By Mr. Warburton, in a note to letter 29, in vol. 9, of Pope's works, edit. 1753.

† Well done; you have hung me more upon the tenters than before.

agree-

'utter despondency as, being attended with the cholic, brought 'his life in danger. In this unhappy condition he removed for 'the benefit of the air in 1722 to Hampstead, where he received 'some very tender proofs of Mr. Pope's affection [*N*]. Re-'covering from this disorder, he finished, in 1724, his tragedy 'called *The Captives*; which being honoured with a particular 'mark of favour from her Royal Highness the Princess of

agreeable answer, in reply thereto tells him, *You are the most refractory, honest, good-natur'd man I ever knew* (28).

(28) Ibid.

[*N*] *He received some tender proofs of Mr. Pope's affection.*] Mr. Pope's mother lying very ill at this time, hindered him from visiting his friend in person, he therefore wrote to him in the following most affectionate terms: "In the afflicting prospect before me, I know "nothing that can so much alleviate it, as the view now given me "(heaven grant it may increase) of your recovery—May your health "augment as fast as I fear her's must decline; I believe that would "be very fast—May the life that is added to you be passed in good "fortune and tranquility; rather from your own giving to yourself, "than from any expectation or trust in others—May you and I live "together without wishing more felicity or acquisitions than friend-"ship can give and receive, without obligations to greatness.

"P. S. As I told you in my last letter, I repeat it in this; do not "think of writing to me. The Doctor, Mrs. Howard, and Mrs. "Blount, give me daily accounts of you."

In another letter he expresses himself thus: "No words can tell "you the great concern I feel for you; I assure you it was not, and "is not lessened, by the immediate apprehension I have now every "day lain under of losing my mother. Be assured no duty less than "that should have kept me one day from attending your condition. "I would come and take a room by you at Hampstead, to be with "you daily, were she not still in danger of death. I have constantly "had particular accounts of you from the Doctor, which have not "ceased to alarm me. God preserve your life, and restore your "health. I really beg it for my own sake, for I feel I love you "more than I thought in health, though I always loved you a great "deal." He then made a proposal to attend him to the southern parts, as soon as he should recover strength enough for the journey; and concludes thus: 'Dear Gay, be as chearful as your sufferings "will permit: God is a better friend than a court; even any honest "man is better. I promise you my entire friendship in all events, "heartily praying for your recovery.

"P. S. Do not write, if you are ever so able; the Doctor tells "me all (29)."

(29) These two letters are in vol. 8, of Pope's works, without a date.

'Wales

'Wales (*o*), he was further encouraged to write a ſet of fables' '[*O*], in verſe, for the uſe of the Duke of Cumberland; theſe he' 'publiſhed in 1726, with a ſuitable dedication to that Prince (*p*),' 'who was then very young. Upon the acceſſion of his preſent' 'Majeſty to the crown the following year, in ſettling Queen' 'Caroline's houſhold, the poſt of Gentleman-Uſher to the' 'youngeſt Princeſs Louiſa, was marked out for Mr. Gay; but' 'he declined the offer as unworthy of him [*P*], and his famous' '*Beggar's*

(*o*) Viz. That of hearing him read to her in manuſcript.

[*O*] *Encouraged to write a ſet of fables.*] Dean Swift, who informs us, that our Author was promiſed a reward for this piece, intimates likewiſe his opinion, how that promiſe came to put on the face of an affront. "It muſt be allowed," ſays the Dean (30), ſpeaking of the Beggar's Opera, "this is not the firſt of Mr. Gay's "works, wherein he hath been faulty with reſpect to courtiers and "ſtateſmen; for to omit his other pieces, even in his fables, publiſhed "within two years paſt, and dedicated to the Duke of Cumberland, "for which he was promiſed a reward, he hath been thought ſome-"what too bold upon courtiers."

(30) The Intelligencer, No. III. p. 23, publiſhed in 1729.

(*p*) This was againſt Mr. Pope's advice, ſee Remark [*U*].

[*P*] *He declined the offer as unworthy of him.*] Our Author gives an account of this matter to his laſt mentioned friend (31), intimating the excuſe he had made in a letter to her Majeſty, was his being too far advanced in life, "So," continues he, "now all my expectations "are vaniſhed, and I have no proſpect but in depending wholly upon "myſelf, and my own conduct. As I am uſed to diſappointments, "I can bear them; but, as I can have no more hopes, I can no "more be diſappointed; ſo that I am in a bleſſed condition (32)." Theſe laſt words are an echo of thoſe which had been ſent him on this occaſion by Mr. Pope, who writes thus: "I have many years "ago magnified in my own mind, and repeated to you, a ninth bea-"titude, added to the eight in Scripture, Bleſſed is he who expects "nothing, for he ſhall never be diſappointed."—He afterwards declares his approbation of the excuſe ſent by Lord Grantham to the Queen, and concludes in theſe remarkable terms: "Dear Gay, "adieu! I can add a plain uncourtly ſpeech, While you are nobody's "ſervant, you may be any one's friend; and as ſuch I embrace you "in all conditions of life. While I have a ſhilling, you ſhall have

(31) See Letter 28, in Pope's works, vol. 9. edit. Warb.

(32) The Dean, in anſwer, is very merry upon his excuſe to the Queen, and obſerves, that Oliver Cromwell did not begin to appear till he was older. Letter 29.

"ſixpence;

"*Beggar's Opera* [Q] appeared upon the ſtage early in the en-
. . . . . ſuing

"ſixpence; nay, eightpence, if I can contrive to live upon a groat "(33)." The Dean, two years afterwards, revenged his cauſe in the following lines (34).

Thus Gay the hare with many friends,
Twice ſeven long years at court attends;
Who under tales conveying truth,
To virtue form'd a princely youth;
Who paid his courtſhip with the crowd,
As far as modiſh pride allow'd;
Rejects a ſervile uſher's place,
And leaves St. James's in diſgrace.

(33) This letter is dated Oct. 6, 1727. See ibid. vol. 8.

(34) See his verſes to Dr. Delany, occaſioned by his epiſtle to his Excellency John Lord Carteret.

[Q] *His famous Beggar's Opera.*] This piece was received with greater applauſe than was ever known. Beſides being acted in London ſixty-three days without interruption, and renewed the next ſeaſon with equal applauſe, it ſpread into all the great towns of England, was played in many places to the thirtieth and fortieth time, at Bath and Briſtol fifty, &c. It made its progreſs into Wales, Scotland, and Ireland, where it was performed twenty-four days ſucceſſively. The ladies carried about with them the favourite ſongs of it in fans, and houſes were furniſhed with it in ſcreens. The fame of it was not confined to the Author only. The perſon who acted Polly, till then obſcure, became all at once the favourite of the town; her pictures were engraved, and ſold in great numbers; her life written, books of letters and verſes to her publiſhed, and pamphlets made even of her ſayings and jeſts. Furthermore, it drove out of England (for that ſeaſon) the Italian opera, which had carried all before it for ten years (35). Dr. Swift attributes (36) this unprecedented, and almoſt incredible ſucceſs, to a peculiar merit in the performance, wherein what we call the point of humour is exactly hit; a point, he obſerves, "which whoever can rightly touch, will never fail of pleaſing a "great majority; and which in its perfection, is allowed to be much "preferable to wit, if it be not rather the moſt uſeful and agreeable "ſpecies of it." The Dean likewiſe remarks, that in this piece the Author *hath, by a turn of humour, entirely new, placed vices of all kind in the ſtrongeſt and moſt odious light, and thereby done eminent ſervice both to religion and morality.*' He then proceeds to vindicate this aſſertion, by examining the ſeveral particulars; after which, upon the whole, he concludes, that *nothing but ſervile attachment to a party, affectation of ſingularity, lamentable dulneſs, miſtaken zeal, or ſtudied hypocriſy, can have the leaſt reaſonable objection againſt this excellent*

(35) See notes to verſe 326 of Pope's Dunciad, Book III.
(36) In the Intelligencer, *ubi ſupra.*

'ſuing ſeaſon (*q*). The unparalleled ſucceſs of that piece in-
'duced him to carry on the plan in a ſecond part, which being
'ex-

moral performance. This, it muſt be owned, was to the purpoſe, ſince the Beggar's Opera lay moſt expoſed on the ſide of morality, and was at that time warmly attacked from the public (37). Another method to ruin its character on that account, was taken by Mr. Colley Cibber, who introduced on the ſtage a rival piece drawn on the ſame general plan, where none but virtuous characters were exhibited. But let the Author himſelf tell us the fate of this attempt: "After the vaſt "ſucceſs," ſays he, (38), "of that new ſpecies of dramatic poetry, *The* "*Beggar's Opera*, the year following I was ſo ſtupid as to attempt ſome-"thing of the ſame kind, upon a quite different foundation, that of "recommending virtue and innocence, which I ignorantly thought "might not have a leſs pretence to favour, than ſetting greatneſs and "authority in a contemptible, and the moſt vulgar vice and wicked-"neſs in an amiable light. But behold how fondly I was miſtaken! "*Love in a Riddle*, for ſo my new-fangled performance was called, "was as vilely damned and hooted at, as ſo vain a preſumption in the "idle cauſe of virtue could deſerve.—Yet this," continues Mr. Cibber, "is not what I complain of. I will allow my poetry to have "been as much below the other, as taſte or criticiſm can ſink it. I "will grant likewiſe, that the applauded Author of the Beggar's "Opera had in that piece more ſkilfully gratified the public taſte, "than all the brighteſt Authors that ever writ before him; and I have "ſometimes thought, from the modeſty of his motto, *Nos hæc novi-*"*mus eſſe nihil* (39), that he gave them that performance as a ſatire "on the depravity of their judgment, (as Ben Johnſon of old was "ſaid to have given his *Bartholomew-fair*, in ridicule of the vulgar "taſte which had diſliked his *Sejanus*) and by artfully ſeducing them "to be the champions of the immoralities he deteſted, he ſhould be "amply revenged on their former ſeverity and ignorance (40). This "were indeed a triumph which the Author of Cato might have envied. "Cato, it is true, ſucceeded; but reached not by full forty days the "the progreſs and applauſes of the Beggar's Opera. Will it, how-"ever, admit of a queſtion, Which of the two compoſition's a good "Writer would rather wiſh to have been the Author of? Yet on the "other ſide, muſt we not allow, that to have taken a whole nation, "high and low, into a general applauſe, has ſhewn a power in poetry "which, though often attempted in the ſame kind, none but this one "Author could ever yet arrive at." Thus did Mr. Cibber ſtrain his voice againſt the Beggar's Opera in 1740, but all in vain. We have

(37) Particularly by the preſent [the *late*] Archbiſhop of Canterbury, then preacher at Lincoln's Inn.

(38) In his Apology for his own Life, p. 142, 3. 8vo. edit. 1740.

(39) This inſtance of his modeſty is not forgotten by the Author of the above-cited note to the Dunciad.

(40) In condemning ſome of his former plays.

(*q*) Viz. In the beginning of November, 1727.

ſeen

'excluded the theatre by the Lord Chamberlain [*R*], our Au-
'thor thought proper to print it by ſubſcription, and the advan-
'tage he made of it that way, might well be deemed a ſufficient
'ballance for any ſuppoſed damage from the prohibition; eſ-
'pecially as he was taken immediately into the protection of
'the Duke and Dutcheſs of Queenſberry, who made his caſe
'their own (*r*), and uſed him with an uncommon degree of
'kindneſs. But theſe extraordinary favours, beſides the hearten-
'ing reflections which the new eclat of his poetical fame muſt

ſeen this deathleſs performance ſince flouriſh as before, and ſucceed-ing Pollies make their fortunes by it.

[*R*] *Excluded the ſtage by the Lord Chamberlain.*] The title of it is, *Polly, or a ſecond part of the Beggar's Opera.* To conceive an idea of the ferment raiſed by this ſuppreſſion, we muſt compare what our Author ſays, with what we are told by Mr. Cibber. The firſt intimates (41) that it had been given him by ſome as a reaſon for the prohibition, that he had written many diſaffected libels, and ſedi-tious pamphlets; by others, that particularly in this piece he had been charged with writing immoralities; that it was filled with ſlander and calumny againſt ſome particular great perſons, and that Majeſty itſelf was endeavoured to be brought into ridicule and contempt. In anſwer to the firſt, he proteſts his innocence, and ſolemnly declares his loyalty; for the reſt, he appeals to the play, which he gives as the reaſon of printing it. Here we perceive how high the tide ran at court. In the next place, Mr. Cibber will tell us, what an uproar was raiſed in the town: "Various," ſays he (42), "were the ſpecu-"lations upon this act of power. Some thought that the Author, "others, that the town, was hardly dealt with; a third ſort, who per-"haps had envied him the ſucceſs of his firſt part, affirmed when it "was printed, that whatever the intention might be, the fact was in "his favour; that he had been a greater gainer by ſubſcriptions to "his copy, than he could have been by a bare theatrical repreſenta-"tion." He then goes on to tell us, how greatly he ſuffered by this ferment. "Soon after this prohibition, my performance was to come "upon the ſtage, at a time when many people were out of humour "at the late diſappointment, and ſeemed willing to lay hold of any "pretence of making a reprizal. Great umbrage was taken, that I "was permitted to have the whole town to myſelf, by this abſolute "forbiddance of what they had more mind to have been entertained "with. And ſome few days before my bawble was acted, I was in-"formed, that a ſtrong party would be made againſt it. Accordingly "*Love in a Riddle* was aſſaſſinated. Indeed, it held up its head a ſe-"cond day, and would have ſpoke for mercy, but was not ſuffered. "Not even the preſence of a royal heir apparent could protect it."

(41) In the preface to Polly.
(42) In his Apology, &c. p. 144, *ubi ſupra.*

(*r*) They both quitted the court on this occaſion.

' needs inſpire, aſſiſted too with the diverſions that were affec-
' tionately ſuggeſted by Mr. Pope [*S*], and the conſtant leſſons,
' with equal affection, inculcated by Dr. Swift [*T*], all put to-
' gether, were not able entirely to remove a certain painful ſenſe
' of his ill fortune at court, *hærebat lateri lethalis arundo.* In a
' little time he relapſed into his old diſtemper the cholic (*s*),
' after which he lived, or rather languiſhed, the remainder of
' his days under an incurable dejection of ſpirits [*U*], reſiding

[*S*] *The diverſions ſuggeſted by Mr. Pope*] Among others, he propoſed the royal hermitage, (built by the Queen in Richmond gardens) as a good occaſion for Mr. Gay to try his muſe upon; urging, that it was expected from him by ſeveral of his friends. One ſhould not bear in mind, continues he, all one's life, any little indignity one receives from a court. But all this dear friend's arguments availed nothing; he anſwers them all, and concludes, that he *knew* himſelf unworthy of royal patronage (43).

(43) Theſe two letters are dated in 1732. See Pope's works, vol. 9.

[*T*] *The leſſons of Dr. Swift.*] Almoſt every letter the Dean wrote to him at that time had ſome inſtances of theſe pointed kindneſſes. Lord Orrery (44), in his remarks on theſe letters between Swift and Gay, having obſerved, that the latter loved the former to a degree of veneration, and that the friendſhip was returned with great ſincerity, concludes, that " Swift writes to him [Gay] in the ſame ſtrain " as he would have written to a ſon, and ſeems to diſtinguiſh him as " the correſpondent to whom he had not the leaſt grain of reſerve."

(44) In his account of the life and writings of Dr. Swift, &c. letter 20.

(*s*) See a letter to him from Mr. Pope, 23d Oct. 1730.

[*U*] *He languiſhed under an incurable dejection of ſpirits.*] The whole ſeries of the letters between him and his two (ſo often mentioned) friends, affords a melancholy proof of this truth. The following extract (45) will be ſufficient to produce for a ſample. " Dear " Mr. Pope, my melancholy increaſes, and every hour threatens me " with ſome return of my diſtemper; nay, I think I may rather ſay, " I have it on me. Not the divine looks, the kind favours and ex-" preſſions of the divine Dutcheſs, who hereafter ſhall be in place of " a Queen to me, nay, ſhe ſhall be my Queen, nor the inexpreſſible " goodneſs of the Duke, can in the leaſt chear me. The drawing-" room no more receives light from theſe two ſtars. There is now, " (what Milton ſays is in Hell) darkneſs viſible.—O that I had never " known what a court was! Dear Pope, what a barren ſoil (to me " ſo) have I been ſtriving to produce ſomething out of! Why did I " not take your advice, before my writing fables for the Duke, not " to write them, or rather to write them for ſome young nobleman? " It is my very hard fate, I muſt get nothing, write for them, or " againſt them."

(45) From a letter in Pope's works, as above.

' moſtly

' mostly at Amesbury, a seat of his noble patron's, near Stone-
' henge, upon Salisbury-plain. In so sweet a retirement he was
' not without some chearful intervals, which he still enjoyed in
' the company of his muse (*t*). In the winter season he came
' with the family to London, and was at their house in Bur-
' lington-gardens, when he was suddenly seized with a violent
' inflammatory fever, which in three days put a period to his
' life [*W*], on the 4th of Dec. 1732. After a very decent fu-
' neral

(*t*) Besides reviſing the Wife of Bath, he compoſed ſome more fables, which were added to a new edition printed ſoon after his death, as alſo the opera of Achilles.

[*W*] *Put a period to his life.*] He was attended by two Phyſicians, beſides Dr. Arbuthnot, who thought him irrecoverable from the beginning, and that it ended in a mortification of his bowels. The Doctor obſerves, it was the moſt precipitate caſe he ever knew. Hence it is, that Mr. Pope (46) calls it an unexpected death; it could be ſo to him only in that view (47), ſince Mr. Gay had prepared him for it in ſeveral letters. After a Somerſetſhire journey, in the preceding ſummer, for his health, he writes (48), that he was little better for it, and began to fear the illneſs he had ſo long and ſo often complained of, inherent in his conſtitution; and concludes, that he had nothing for it but patience. In another letter, he expreſſes himſelf in the following terms:—" I find myſelf in ſuch a ſtrange confuſion and de-
" preſſion of ſpirits, that I have not ſtrength even to make my will;
" though I perceive, by many warnings, I have no continuing city
" here. I begin to look upon myſelf as one already dead, and deſire
" my dear Mr. Pope, whom I love as my own ſoul, if you ſurvive
" me, as you certainly will, if a ſtone ſhould mark the place of my
" grave, ſee theſe words put upon it:

Life is a jeſt, and all things ſhew it:
I thought ſo once, but now I know it.

" With what you may think proper. If any body ſhould aſk, how
" I could communicate this after death? Let it be known, it is not
" meant ſo, but my preſent ſentiments in life (49). What the bearer
" brings beſide this letter, ſhould I die without a will, which I am
" the likelier to do, as the law will ſettle my ſmall eſtate much as
" I ſhould myſelf, let it remain with you, as it has long done with

(46) In a letter to Swift, the 6th, vol. 9, of his works, edit. 1742.

(47) It was far from being ſo to Dr. Swift, as appears from his remarkable indorſement to the above letter, viz. On my dear friend Mr. Gay's death, received Dec. 15, but not read till the 20th, by an impulſe foreboding ſome misfortune.

(48) In a letter dated Oct 7. 1732.

(49) In this light the objection againſt the double rhyme has leſs weight.

'neral ſolemnity [*X*], his body was interred, on the 23d of 'that month, in the ſouth-croſs iſle, over againſt Chaucer's 'tomb, in Weſtminſter-Abbey, where a handſome monument 'is erected to his memory by the juſt-mentioned illuſtrious per-'ſons, with an inſcription by Mr. Pope, to which we muſt re-'fer for his character [*Y*]. He died inteſtate, ſo that his for-'tune, which was not large (*u*), fell, as he deſired it ſhould (*w*), 'to his two widow ſiſters (*x*). The week before his death he 'gave the play-houſe his opera called *Achilles*, which was acted 'ſoon after with applauſe [*Z*]. Since this there came out a 'comedy,

me, a remembrance of a dead friend. But there is none like you, living or dead (50)."

(50) See Pope's works, Vol. 9.

[*X*] *After a very decent funeral ſolemnity.*] His body was brought by the company of upholders from the Duke of Queenſberry's to Exeter 'Change, in the Strand; whence, after lying in very decent ſtate, it was drawn in a hearſe trimmed with plumes of black and white feathers, attended with three mourning coaches and ſix, to Weſtminſter-Abbey, at eight o'clock in the evening, on Dec. 23. The pall was ſupported by the Earl of Cheſterfield, Lord Viſcount Cornbury, the Hon. Mr. Berkeley, General Dormer, Mr. Gore, and Mr. Pope; the ſervice being performed by the preſent Dean, Dr. Wilcox, Biſhop of Rocheſter, the choir attending (51).

(51) See Mr. Gay's life, printed in 1733.

[*Y*] *His character.*] It would be tedious to inſert an inſcription ſo well known. We ſhall only take notice, that the laſt line in the poetical part was written at firſt thus,

Striking their aching boſoms—Here lies Gay;

but upon Dr Swift's admonition of the cacophony in the two participles, Mr. Pope altered it as it now ſtands (52). His friend's moral character is here finely drawn, and perhaps he was the more ſolicitous to exert himſelf on that head, as it had been groſly miſrepreſented, particularly by Mr. Jacob (53), which procured him a place in the Dunciad (54).

(52) See letter 66, in vol. 9, of Pope's works, edit. 1743.

(53) See Mr. Gay's life, in his Lives of the Poets.

(54) In Book III. lines 149, 150, firſt edition,

(*u*) About 3000 *l.*

(*w*) See Remark [*U*].

(*x*) Katharine and Joanna, the firſt was the relict of Mr. Baller, and the other of Mr. Forteſcue. See the dedication to his life in 1733. 8vo.

[*Z*] *Achilles was acted with applauſe.*] The profits of it were given to his ſiſters (55). It was very aſſiduouſly patronized by the Duke

(55) So ſays Mr. Theoph. Cibber, in the life of Gay, Vol. 4, of the Lives of the Poets.

of

'comedy, ſaid to be written by him, called *The Diſtreſſed Wife*, 'the ſecond edition of which was printed in 1750; and very 'lately his name has appeared to a humourous piece, with this 'title, *The Rehearſal at Goatham.*'

of Queenſberry, who, Mr. Pope obſerves, acted more than the part of a brother to our Author. His papers fell partly into Mr. Pope's hands; who, for as much as did ſo, no doubt took care (as he promiſed Dr. Swift) to ſuppreſs things unworthy of him; but he expreſſes his concern in regard to the reſt, which were at the diſcretion of the adminiſtrators, whoſe partiality he was afraid of (56). Upon the whole, his account does by no means leſſen the authenticity of thoſe few pieces mentioned above, which have been publiſhed in Mr. Gay's name, ſince his death.

(56) See letter 64, in vol. 9, of his works, 1742, as alſo letters 65, and 67.

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For DECEMBER, 1757. continued.

POLITICAL.

Art. 40. *The Militia-Act conſidered: Wherein the Errors and Imperfections thereof, are, particularly, pointed out and proved; and under each an Amendment propoſed, with Reaſons for ſupporting ſuch Amendment, and to evince the Neceſſity and Practibility thereof. Alſo, a Scheme for raiſing a yearly Sum, ſufficient to pay a proper Body of Militia, defray Contingencies, and to become a Fund capable of rendering ſuch Body, at all Times reſpectable, and in Times of Danger effective: the ſaid Sum to be raiſed, and Fund created, without further Incumbrances upon Induſtry, or additional Impoſt on the Neceſſaries of Life. Humbly addreſſed to both Houſes of Parliament. By a Gentleman of the Law. In two Parts. Part* I. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Serjeant, Millan, &c.

THIS Treatiſe, as we are informed by the title-page, is written by a Gentleman of the *Law*, who tells us, that, 'as *Term* 'was nigh when he reſolved upon it, his leiſure could not allow him 'to prepare the *ſecond* part fully for the preſs.' Happy would it have been for *him* and *us*, had it been *term-time* all the year! for then, perhaps, he would not have had leiſure to expoſe himſelf in print, nor ſhould we have been fatigued with toiling through *ninety-four* dull pages.

We believe he is the firſt Writer that ever addreſſed his Readers in terms like the following.

'In handling the ſubject of theſe ſheets, it *need* not be expected 'that I ſhall endeavour (were I even capable of it) as other Writers 'do, to dignify and illuſtrate it, by the ſublimity and elegance of '*ſtile*, a purity of *diction*, a ſpiritedneſs of *ſtrain*, nor the lively co-'lourings of *metaphor*.'

This is much as telling his Readers, 'Gentlemen, I am ambitious of appearing in print, but it is not neceſſary that I ſhould have any one qualification of a good Writer.'

But though this Author diſclaims the colourings of *metaphor*, yet we do not remember to have ever met with ſuch a bombaſt aſſemblage of metaphorical conceits. Speaking of the Militia-act, he ſays,

'Indeed, it is certain, that the *platform*, or *ground work* of that 'act, hath been planned with wiſdom and accuracy, and muſt great-'ly redound to the honour of the *Architect*, who firſt ſketched out 'the deſign; for by giving it more *materials*, altering ſome of the '*apartments*, taking away ſome others that ſeem not to be of a piece 'with the *deſign*, and adding ſome few other *conveniences*, the *fabric* 'muſt thereby become beauteous, grand, and uſeful; and ſhall carry 'with it a certain Gothic appearance and *ſtructure*, which muſt give 'awfulneſs and ſtrength: this to withſtand the decay of time, and 'efforts of tempeſtuous elements, that to command reſpect and at-'tention. But as it now ſtands, it cannot bear (as before hinted) 'the eye of even a *travelling Spectator*.'

In another place he drops from the dignity of the foregoing metaphor, when, obſerving that Elections may claſh with the Militia duty, he ſays,—'The number of Electors muſt be ſo reduced by the 'duty of the field, that *influence* with its many *ſtrings*, can have but 'a few to tune into the humour of dancing to its *jigg*.' Had not the Author informed us, that he was a Lawyer, one might ſuppoſe him, from this figurative trip, a Dancing-Maſter; and, perhaps, if he had been employed in dancing a jigg, inſtead of ſcribbling this pamphlet, he might have gained ſome reputation by the agility of his *heels*; for if we may judge from the ſpecimen before us, his merit certainly does not lie in his *head*.

After having made a pompous diviſion of his diſcourſe, he ſays, 'The introductory matters which I ſhall offer, can only ſerve as '*viſtoes*, which lead to a *building*; or as *plummets* and *ſquares* to try 'its rectitude.' We cannot forbear obſerving, that if his introduction is to ſerve as a *viſtoe*, it has a very bad termination, for it leads to a pile of rubbiſh: indeed it may ſerve very well for a *plummet*, for, with ſuch a *leaden* inſtrument, we may fathom the very depths of Dullneſs: but it will, by no means, do for a *ſquare*, for it is more like a *circle*, in which we may run round about, and round about, without ever coming to an end.

The errors he has ſet forth in the Militia-Act, have been long ſince diſplayed, as we apprehend, in a more clear and ſatisfactory manner.

He

He has taken great pains to prove ſelf-evident propoſitions; and his reflections, ſuch as they are, loſt in a wilderneſs of words.

He particularly cenſures the oaths preſcribed by the Militia-Act; and propoſes, by way of *amendment*, the form of an Oath of his own penning, in which we find the following extraordinary clauſe.

'I *A. B.* do ſwear, that I will always bear faith and true allegiance to his Majeſty King George, his heirs, &c. And further, that I *ſhall* and will, at all times *prevent* and *diſcover*, with intent *to prevent*, to my utmoſt power, all treaſons and traiterous conſpiracies againſt his or their perſons, their crown and dignity, which I ſhall I know or *credibly hear of*.'

It is ſcarce conceiveable how ſo much nonſenſe could be crowded in ſuch a narrow compaſs. Not to mention the ſhocking impropriety of making a man ſwear that he *ſhall* do any act,—We would aſk the Author, with what ſafety of conſcience any one can ſwear, that he ſhall and will *diſcover* treaſons, &c.? The word *diſcover*, is too equivocal an expreſſion to be uſed in this place: it often means to *find out*; and no man alive can ſwear, that he ſhall and will *find out* treaſons, &c. It would be ſtill more abſurd and dangerous for a man to ſwear 'that he ſhall and will prevent and diſcover, with *intent* to 'prevent,' &c.—It would be very unſafe in any one to ſwear, that he ſhall and will *prevent* treaſons, &c. but it would be a further violence, to make him ſwear even to his intent. The words, 'or credibly hear of,' which cloſe his ſentence, are of a piece with the reſt; for the conſtruction of them is ſo obſcure and ambiguous, that it is difficult to ſay whether they allude to the credibility of the conſpiracies which the Deponent ſhall hear of, or to the credibility of his having heard of any at all.

It is pleaſant to obſerve this *Oathmaker* tax the Laws with *obſcurity* and *uncertainty*, and tell us, that they ought to be *plain*, *clear*, and *certain* in the expreſſion. He is the more inexcuſable, as the words of the Oath, which, by way of *amendment*, he has altered into nonſenſe, are in themſelves clear, preciſe, and determinate; they are as follows.

"I *will* (not I *ſhall* and will) do my utmoſt *endeavours* to *diſcloſe* and *make* known (not to *prevent* and *diſcover*) to his Majeſty "and his ſucceſſors, (not his *heirs* and ſucceſſors) all treaſons and "traiterous conſpiracies which I *ſhall know* (not *credibly hear of*) to "be againſt him or any of them."

Heaven defend us from *ſuch* Emendators!

Art. 41. *Britain's Barrier; or a Scheme for a Voluntary Militia*, &c. 8vo. 6d. Fenner.

This appears to be the work of ſome well-meaning, zealous Proteſtant, who inveighs bitterly againſt a Militia compoſed of Mob; and propoſes, that none be admitted 'leſs worth in poſſeſſion, or '*viſible reverſion*, than *fifty* pounds.' What he means by *viſible reverſion*,

verſion, we cannot conceive: but we are of opinion, that any *reverſion* of *fifty* pounds, can ſcarce be called property, or deemed ſufficient to draw the reverſioner from among the Mob, if, by Mob, the Writer means men of no property.

We are not perſuaded, however, that it would be adviſeable, if practicable, to eſtabliſh a Militia wherein the common ſoldiers ſhould be men of property. The enjoyment of property, added to the freedom which every Briton inherits, gives the poſſeſſor ſuch notions of independance, that he cannot ſubmit to pay that ſervile obedience to his Commanders, and preſerve that rigid diſcipline which is the life of all military inſtitutions.

Neither can the writer of this article entirely fall in with the notion of a Brother Reviewer, that property will animate men to fight more courageouſly in defence of their country. Experience rather teaches us, that poverty is the ſtrongeſt incitement to intrepidity. It is the nature of man to be more ſtrenuous in purſuit of future acquiſitions, than earneſt in maintaining preſent poſſeſſions. Men of deſperate fortune will dare more to better their condition, than thoſe in affluent circumſtances will venture to ſecure their enjoyments.

Upon the whole, we do not think that this Writer's viſionary ſcheme either can be, or ought to be, reduced to practice.

POETICAL.

Art. 42. *Youthful Amuſements, in Verſe, on different Occaſions.* 8vo. 1s. Owen.

The Editor of theſe pieces of Verſification, which are ten in number, informs us, that they fell into his hands by chance; that he is a ſtranger to the Writer, and, therefore, that he thinks it neceſſary to make the following apology for the publication of them.—'The 'pieces were read by ſome men eſteemed for learning and ge'nius, who, if they did not highly applaud, did not condemn, but 'admitted a ſimplicity and feeling in them, which might ſave the 'Editor from the cenſure of being void of judgment.'

Tho' we cannot apprehend that this modeſt Editor would have ſacrificed any reputation by ſuppreſſing theſe *amuſements*, yet we muſt confeſs our having been obliged to travel through many larger collections of worſe-tagged rhymes. But the following ſpecimen, (which is ſelected merely on account of its being moſt ſuitable to our limits), will enable the Reader to judge for himſelf.

To a WOOD-LARK, *that ſung daily at my Window.*

Sweet viſitant, whoſe ſong may vie
With the Night-warbler's melody;
Tho' ſhe in Love's ſoft tone complains,
Yet grateful flow thy temp'rate ſtrains,
And vary'd too; from Grief's long note
To rapid Joy, thy trembling throat

Purſues

Purſues the wild harmonious maze,
Not grudging its unleſſon'd lays;
When Morn unbars the gates of light,
Or Heſper leads the train of Night;
While Philomel, in ſome lone vale
Tells only to the ſtars her tale,
And wand'ring Lovers; theſe her ſong
Delighted hear; nor hear it long;
For ſoon the ſoft complainer yields
The tuneful empire of the fields
To thee; thy notes the ploughmen chear,
When earth firſt ſprings to meet the year,
And when her bluſhing ſmiles betray
Her commerce with the God of day,
When laughing Ceres crowns her joys,
The harveſt hymn thy voice employs.
Sweet bird, like thee if I could ſing,
Theſe vallies with thy praiſe ſhould ring.

Art. 43. *Virtue the Source of Pleaſure.* 8vo. 4s. 6d. bound. Buckland.

A collection of devout and moral Poems.—which we are ſorry to ſee in print, as they can derive no great credit to the *Poet**: who, we hear, bears a very worthy character as *a man*.

* The Author's name is *Barnard*, as we learn from his advertiſements in the public papers.

MISCELLANEOUS.

Art. 44. *The Cyder-maker's Inſtructor, Sweet-maker's Aſſiſtant, and Victualler's, and Houſekeepers Director. Part* I. *Directs the Grower to make his Cyder in the Manner foreign Wines are made; to preſerve its Body and Flavour; to lay on a Colour, and to cure all its Diſorders, whether bad flavoured, pricked, oily, or ropy. Part* II. *Inſtructs the Trader, or Houſekeeper, to make Raiſin-wines, at a ſmall Expence, little, if any thing, inferior to foreign Wines in Strength or Flavour; to cure their Diſorders; to lay on them new Bodies, Colour, &c. Part* III. *Directs the Brewer to fine his Beer and Ale, in a ſhort Time, and to cure them if pricked or ropy, &c. &c. All actually deduced from the Author's Experience.* By Thomas Chapman, Wine-cooper. 8vo. 2s. Printed at Cirenceſter, for S. Rudder.

As it is more than probable, that Mr. Chapman underſtands Cyder-making and Brewing better than the Reviewers can pretend to do, they will not hazard a ſingle criticiſm on his performance: at the ſame, too, and for the ſame reaſon, they cannot venture to recommend it, as experience alone ought to pronounce on ſuch ſubjects.

Art.

Art. 45. *Magazin des Enfans: or, the young Miſſes Magazine; containing Dialogues between a Governeſs and ſeveral young Ladies of Quality, her Scholars. In which each Lady is made to ſpeak according to her particular Genius, Temper, and Inclination; their ſeveral Faults are pointed out, and the eaſy Way to mend them, as well as to think, and ſpeak, and act properly; no leſs Care being taken to form their Hearts to Goodneſs, than to enlighten their Underſtandings with uſeful Knowlege. A ſhort and clear Abridgment is alſo given of ſacred and prophane Hiſtory, and ſome Leſſons in Geography. The uſeful is blended throughout with the agreeable, the whole being interſperſed with proper Reflections, and moral Tales.* By Madam Le Prince de Beaumont. *Tranſlated from the French.* Vol. I. 12mo. 1 s. 6d. bound. Haberkorn.

This is the prettieſt book of the kind that we have ſeen. It is written in the Socratic manner, and cannot fail of entertaining, while it improves, the young Readers for whoſe uſe it is intended. Madam de Beaumont is excellent in this way, as well as in performances of a ſuperior kind. Her *Education compleat*, of which we gave ſome account in the ninth volume of the Review, page 310, does honour to her profeſſion as a Tutreſs; and her *Magazin François*, tho' diſcontinued, long ſince eſtabliſhed her character as a woman of genius and taſte.

Of the work now before us, four little tomes are publiſhed in French; one only of which has yet appeared in Engliſh; but we doubt not the public will ſufficiently encourage a tranſlation of the whole.

Art. 46. *The Nonpareil; or the Quinteſſence of Wit and Humour: being a choice Collection of thoſe Pieces that were moſt admired in the ever-to be-remembered* Midwife; *or*, Old Woman's Magazine. *Pieces which (as a celebrated Author obſerves) will ſtand the Teſt of all Ages, and live, and be read, till Time is no more. To which is added, an Index to Mankind; or, Maxims ſelected from the Wits of all Nations, &c. &c.* 12mo. 3s. Carnan.

When the pieces in this collection were firſt publiſhed, they had their admirers; and ſome of them are, indeed, worth preſerving; eſpecially in an age wherein Wit and Humour are almoſt as ſcarce as courage among ourſelves, or public ſpirit in our Colonies.

Art. 47. *The Beauties of England; or a comprehenſive View of the public Structures, the Seats of the Nobility and Gentry, the two Univerſities, the Cities, Market-Towns, Antiquities, and Curioſities, natural and artificial, for which this Iſland is remarkable. Including a circumſtantial Account of the Curioſities of London and Weſtminſter, &c.* 12mo. 3s. Davis & Co.

Abridged

Abridged from the Tour through Great Britain, &c. and intended as a 'Travelling Pocket-Companion, to point out whatever merits 'the attention of the Engliſh Traveller, or the obſervation of the 'Foreigner.' The whole is divided into counties, and a copious table of the contents is prefixed.

Art. 48. *An Addreſs humbly offered to the Ladies of Great Britain, relating to the moſt valuable part of ornamental manufacture in their dreſs.* 12mo. 6d. Millar.

The deſign of this Addreſs is to recommend to the Ladies the improvement of the manufacturing modern Engliſh point-lace; a ſubject certainly well worth the attention, now eſpecially, of the opulent Fair.—The Addreſſer, Mrs. Holt, of Ludgate-hill, is ſaid to be well qualified for carrying ſuch an undertaking into execution, if properly encouraged.

Art. 49. *The Trial of the Time-killers. A Comedy of five acts.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Owen.

We are made acquainted with the ſcheme of this Comedy in the following words, prefixed to it. 'In this ſatire the preſent faſhionable 'ways of miſpending time are conſidered and cenſured—and offenders 'puniſhed.'—The performance is not deſtitute of humour, but it is too tedious and declamatory to be generally entertaining. From both the plan and execution there is reaſon to believe it the production of the ſame pen to which we owe the *Trial of the Lady Allurea Luxury*, mentioned in the laſt volume of the Review, p. 459.

Art. 50. *An Appeal to the Public, concerning the Diſtilling Trade: with a rational Scheme to extirpate it from the Nation.* By Red-Hot. 8vo. 6d. Kinnerſly.

Mr. *Red-Hot* addreſſes his readers under falſe colours and pretences; notwithſtanding the ſeeming warmth of his aſſumed name, he is quite a cool Writer: nay, he honeſtly confeſſes, 'that his chief deſign is, 'by reaſoning, to ſave the diſtillery from deſtruction, (though his title 'is otherwiſe) and fix it agreeable to the trade and the public.' —To ſuch as inſiſt upon the neceſſity of an abſolute abolition of the Engliſh diſtillery, the following ſcheme is offered for that purpoſe.

'From this day let the diſtilling trade be ſhut up from any perſon 'ſetting up in it, but thoſe that have, or are ſerving their apprentice-'ſhips to it; excluding thoſe that have ſerved an apprenticeſhip to it, 'and are now ſettled in any other buſineſs.—Upon the death of any 'preſent diſtiller, by which is meant all that are now in the buſineſs, 'as well makers of ſpirits, as rectifiers, and makers of compounds, 'that have ſtills up, and uſe them for any of the aforeſaid purpoſes, 'his widow, as likewiſe the widows of thoſe that may ſet up, to con-'tinue in the buſineſs during the time ſhe is a widow; and all widows, 'or maiden women, that are now ſet up in the buſineſs as aforeſaid, 'to continue in it as long as they remain unmarried.'

To

To thoſe who will be contented that the diſtillery be put under farther regulations, this plan is propoſed. 'Iſt. Let the malt diſtillers 'be confined (under penalties) not to exceed a ſet price for every 'ſort of grain that they uſe for ſpirits for the future.—2dly. The 'compound diſtillers to have a licence to retail as well as the publi-'cans; the diſtiller not to ſuffer any perſon to ſit in his or her ſhop, 'nor drink above one dram, of half a quartern at a time, under a 'penalty.—Laſtly, Let all the diſtillers within the bills of mortality 'be incorporated in one body, as a company, with power to make 'bye-laws and regulations for themſelves (beſide the aforeſaid public 'regulations), and to have power to inflict penalties and puniſhments 'on thoſe that break them; and all the other diſtillers in England to 'be ſubject to their regulations.'

MEDICAL.

Art. 51. *Medical Aphoriſms; or a Compendium of Phyſic founded on irrefragable principles. By* Thomas Marryat, *M. D.* 8vo. 6d. Printed at Ipſwich, by W. Craighton.

If dogmatical aſſumptions are to be received for clear phyſical reaſoning, Dr. Marryat's *principles* are, indeed, *irrefragable*. As to ourſelves, we do not think it worth while to beſtow correction on an Author who bids defiance to chaſtiſement.—Hear what he ſays of his own performance.—'It is an abſtract of a much larger work, which my 'indiſpenſible avocations will preclude the publication of, as it is not 'yet finiſhed *; and I am the leſs concerned about it, ſince Dr. 'SHEBBEARE's new practice of phyſic † fortuitouſly came to my 'hands; between whoſe plan and mine there is no eſſential differ-'ence, and whoſe treatiſe I would recommend to the peruſal of all 'who are entruſted with the care of the ſick.'—If this is not enough, have patience, Reader, and you ſhall have another ſpecimen from this poſitive Doctor's concluſion.—'I ſhall conclude this work 'with aſſuring the illiterate rabble, that I have learned to entertain 'a ſincere and equal contempt for their unmeaning cenſures and ap-'plauſes, as I have already ſecured the eulogium of men of learning 'and ſenſe. I wiſh this little treatiſe may prove, at leaſt, of ſo much 'ſervice to mankind, as to prevent the precipitate entrance of the 'lancet, (for want of knowing what elſe to do) which lets out more 'lives of his Majeſty's liege ſubjects in one year, than the ſwords of 'the French will be able to do in ſeven.'——Such as want to know more of this pamphlet, are referred to the original.

* Our Author cannot take it amiſs, that we pray for the continuance of his avocations; which we do very ſincerely, that we may not be troubled with any more of his works.

† For an idea of the work here ſo highly applauded, ſee Review, Vol. XII. p. 401. This couple of Doctors appear to be truly *par nobile* FRATRUM.

SER-

SERMONS *ſince October.*

1. *THE Condition of Man's Life a conſtant Call to Induſtry.* Preached before the univerſity of Oxford, at St. Mary's, June 19, 1757. By George Fothergill, D. D. Principal of St. Edmund-hall. Publiſhed at the requeſt of Mr. Vice-Chancellor, and the Heads of Houſes. 8vo. 6 d. Rivington.

2. *Attendance in Places of Religious Worſhip, where the Divine Name is recorded, encouraged.*—Two ſermons, preached October 9, 1757, at the opening a new place for worſhip, in Carter-lane, St. Olave's Street, Southwark. By John Gill, D. D. 8vo. 1 s. Keith.

3. *A Defence of the Subſcriptions required in the Church of England.* Preached before the Univerſity of Cambridge, on the Commencement-Sunday, 1757. By W. S. Powell, D. D. Fellow of St. John's College. 4to. 6 d. Beecroft.

The Doctor treats the point under conſideration, in the moſt ſuperficial manner, and ſcarce touches the principal difficulties that attend it. In regard to the Liturgy, he aſks if there be any abſurdity in it ſo glaring, as to be viſible to every eye? any impiety ſo monſtrous, as to ſhock every devout worſhipper? and anſwers, that the moſt ſcrupulous adverſaries of the church of England never pretended it. But, with the good Doctor's leave, many of them, and thoſe not the moſt ſcrupulous, have affirmed, and ſtill do affirm, that the Athanaſian doctrine of the Trinity (not to mention any thing elſe) and the worſhip founded upon it, are as glaring abſurdities as ever diſgraced any Chriſtian church. Nay, it is well known, that many worthy, pious, and learned members of our church, in what manner ſoever they may ſatisfy their own conſciences in ſubſcribing to ſuch doctrines, and in joining in ſuch worſhip, diſapprove of them as much as thoſe who diſſent from the church.

As to the articles, the Doctor endeavours to ſhew, that there is much reaſonable liberty in the approbation we give of the doctrines contained in them; that we may underſtand them in any of thoſe ſenſes which the general words comprehend, or to which the received interpretations of theſe doctrines, or the judgments of able interpreters, have extended them; that we are not confined ſtrictly even to this compaſs, but may allow ourſelves, if it ſeems neceſſary, to differ as much from former interpreters, as they have frequently done from each other; and laſtly, that there is room for various degrees of aſſent according to the various ages and abilities of the ſubſcribers. All this is evidently explaining the articles away, and making ſubſcription to them anſwer no purpoſe at all.

4. Two ſermons at Northampton-aſſizes, April 7, and July 20, 1757. The firſt before the Hon. Mr. Juſtice Bathurſt, the ſecond before the Lord Chief Baron Parker, and the Hon. Mr. Baron Legge. By John Foſter, M. A. Rector of Elton, in the county of Huntingdon, and Chaplain to the Duke of Mancheſter. 8vo. 1 s. B. Dod.

5. *A*

5. *A friendly Call to the People of the Roman Catholic Religion in Ireland.* Preached at St. Bridget's, Dublin, Oct. 23, 1757, with a dedication to the Earl of Clanbraſſill, containing ſome remarks on heads of a bill now before the Lords for a regiſter of Popiſh prieſts. By John Brett, D. D. Dublin printed, London re-printed, by W. Reeve, in Fleetſtreet. 8vo. 6d.

6. *The Difficulties and due Diſcharge of the Miniſterial Office in the preſent age.* Preached before the Univerſity of Oxford, at St. Mary's, November 27, 1757. By Thomas Griffith, M. A. Fellow of Pembroke-College. 8vo. 6d. Rivington.

7. *Conſideration of the great Things God has done for us ſeriouſly recommended.* Preached to the congregation of Proteſtant-Diſſenters at Woodbridge, in Suffolk, Nov. 5, 1757. By William Cornell. 8vo. 4d. Field.

8. Occaſioned by the death of Mrs. Martha Tate, who departed this life, Sept. 4, 1757, in the 35th year of her age; and of her two children, John and Martha, aged 17 days. By Edward Hitchin. 8vo. 6d. Buckland.

9. Preached by the Rev. Mr, William Ford, at the ordination of Mr. William Ford, jun, at Miles's-Lane, Dec. 14, 1757. Together with an introductory diſcourſe, by the Rev. Mr. Samuel Morton Savage; Mr. Ford's confeſſion of faith; and a charge delivered by David Jennings, D. D. 8vo. 1s. Buckland, Field, &c.

10. Preached at York, to a congregation of Proteſtant Diſſenters, Nov. 27. juſt upon receiving the account of the King of Pruſſia's victory on the 5th of that month. By Newcome Cappe. Publiſhed at the requeſt of the audience. 4to. 6d. York, printed by Ward.

11. *Conjugal Love and Duty,* &c. With a dedication to the Right Hon. Lady Caroline Ruſſel. Re-printed from the Dublin edition. 8vo. 1s. Wilkie.

N. B. An account of this diſcourſe will be given in the Review for February

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ERRATUM. Page 583, line 19 from the bottom, for *than* read *that*.

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